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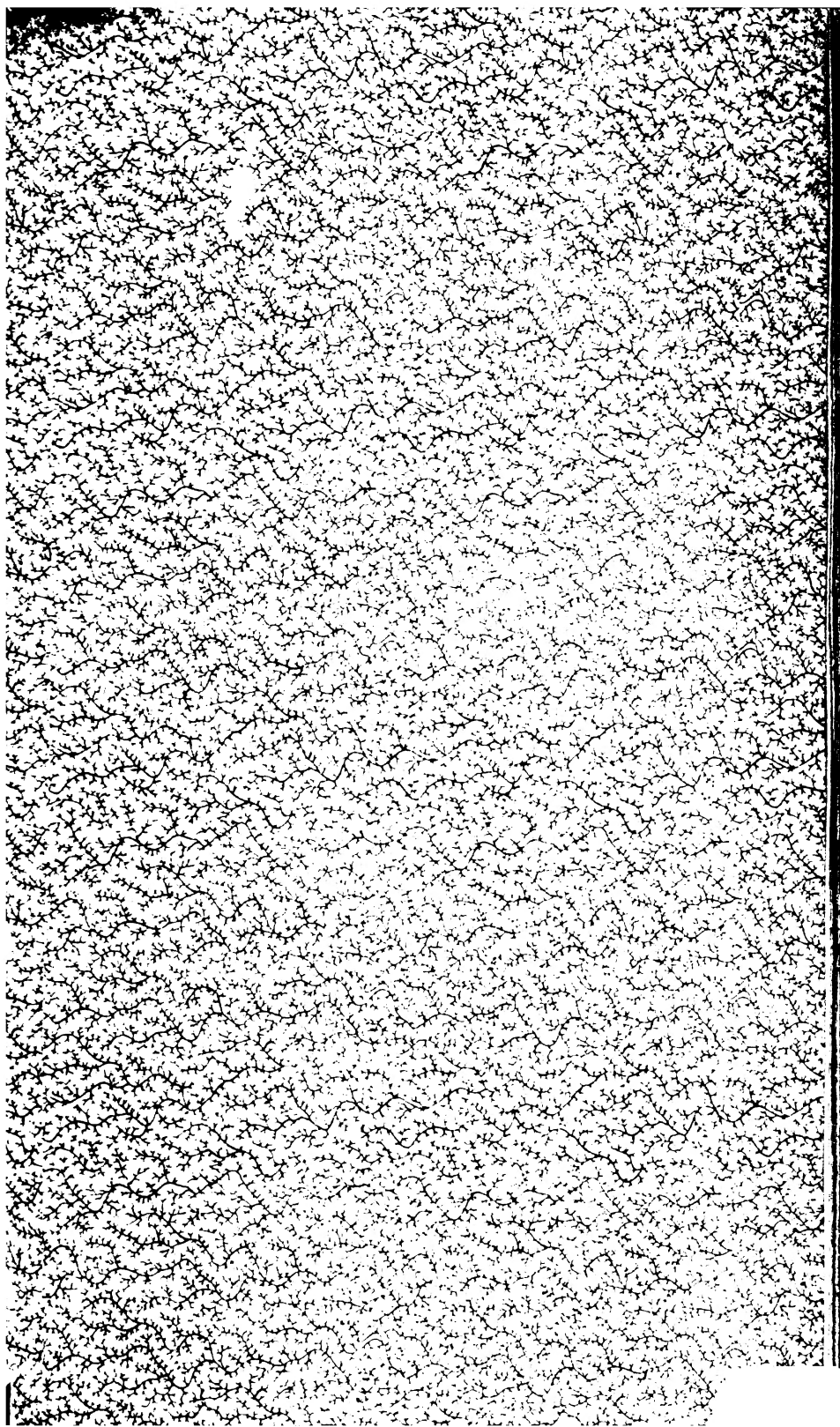
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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
OR
LITERARY JOURNAL,
ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, inclusive,

M,DCCC,XXIII.

With an APPENDIX.

——— " *Nil sine magno
Vita labore dedit mortalibus.*"

HOR. 1 Sat. ix. 59.

VOLUME CII.



L O N D O N :

Printed by A. and R. Spottiswoode, New-Street-Square ;

And sold by J. PORTER, Successor to the late T. BECKET,
in Pall-Mall.

M,DCCC,XXIII.

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T A B L E

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. FOR REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review, — see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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ERRATA in Vol. CII.

- Page 2. line last, for 'seamen,' read *seaman*.
33. l. 29. put a comma after 'morality.'
199. l. 7. for 'dicotyledenous,' read *dicotyledonous*.
230. l. 8. from bottom, for 'Herodius,' read *Herodias*.
398. l. 17. for 'Trant,' read *Trent*.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For SEPTEMBER, 1823.

ART. I. *Narrative of a Journey to the Shores of the Polar Sea, in the Years 1819, 20, 21, and 22.* By John Franklin, Capt. R. N., F. R. S., and Commander of the Expedition. With an Appendix on various Subjects relating to Science and Natural History. Illustrated by numerous Plates and Maps. Published by Authority of the Earl Bathurst. 4to. pp. 784. 4*l.* 4*s.* Boards. Murray. 1823.

NUMEROUS occasions have lately called on us to pay a tribute to the enterprize and the science of our countrymen, who leave no part of this terraqueous globe unvisited, but attempt to discover whatever is unknown, and to overcome any difficulties which have hitherto been insuperable. The public anxiety begins to increase respecting the fate of the intrepid Capt. Parry and his companions, in their renewed endeavor to force the barriers of the Polar Sea: but we must yet wait some time for the interesting intelligence from them which we are expecting; and in the meanwhile our curiosity receives an alleviating gratification, by the publication of the report of Capt. Franklin's hazardous effort to reach the frozen ocean by land, in which it was partly contemplated to effect a meeting with those who were urging a similar fortune over the bosom of the waters. Had the expedition here recorded been undertaken merely to gratify an individual's thirst for knowledge or for fame, its present unvarnished history would still have roused the attention and excited the sympathies of every generous mind: but, when viewed in combination with the series of national efforts to explore the arctic latitudes, and to ascertain the existence of a communication between two great oceans, it cannot fail to awaken the most lively and patriotic sensations. We hasten, therefore, to lay before our readers some notices of a narrative which has such urgent claims on their regard, and which the enlightened portion of the community will peruse with the mingled feelings of commiseration and applause.

The main object of Capt. Franklin's mission was to explore the northern coast of America, from the mouth of the Copper

Mine River eastward, and the purport of his instructions was to determine the latitudes and longitudes; to solicit advice and information from the winter-officers of the Hudson's Bay Company, who were enjoined by their employers to co-operate with him; to adopt such a route as, under all circumstances, he might conceive to be the most eligible; to leave conspicuous signals where any chance of Capt. Parry falling in with his track could be imagined; to keep a meteorological diary; to neglect no opportunities of observing and noting the dip and variation of the magnetic needle, and the intensity of the magnetic force; to ascertain whether the aurora borealis exerts any influence on the needle, or its appearance is accompanied with noise; and to suggest any observations illustrative of its cause, or of the laws to which it is subjected. Lieutenants Back and Hood, of the navy, were appointed to assist in making the observations; and to take drawings of the land, of the natives, and of objects of natural history, particularly such as Dr. Richardson, physician and naturalist to the expedition, might point out as most deserving of their attention. By direction of the Lords of the Admiralty, the requisite stores and instruments were put on board the Hudson's Bay Company's ship, *Princess of Wales*, which was to convey the expedition to York Factory.

On the 29d of May, 1819, the party embarked at Gravesend as the vessel and her consorts, the *Eddystone* and *Wear*, were getting under weigh: but, owing to the prevailing easterly wind, they did not reach Stromness, in Orkney, till the 3d of June. Here they tried their instruments, and made some nautical observations: Dr. Richardson was occupied in collecting and examining the marine plants which abound on the shores; and Mr. Hood and Mr. Back made sketches of the most picturesque scenes within their reach. Capt. Franklin, who found that he might have occasion for boatmen, took great pains to make his intentions known among the Orkadians: but, with much difficulty, he procured only four; and they stipulated to be sent home from Fort Chipewyan, free of expence, and to receive their pay till their arrival. 'I was much amused,' says the Captain, 'with the extreme caution these men used before they would sign the agreement; they minutely examined all our intentions, weighed every circumstance, looked narrowly into the plan of our route, and still more circumspectly to the prospect of return. Such caution on the part of the northern mariners forms a singular contrast with the ready and thoughtless manner in which an English seaman enters upon any enterprize, however hazardous, without inquiring,

inquiring, or desiring to know, where he is going, or what he is going about.'

Proceeding on their voyage on the 16th, the ships were soon launched into the expanse of the Atlantic, when the Commander furnished his officers and men with their instructions. During the remainder of the month, an obstinate wind from N. W. and a heavy sea greatly impeded their progress: but their advance westward was more accelerated in the course of July; and on the 25th of that month they opened Davis's Straits, and spoke the *Andrew Marvel*, whale-ship, but received no tidings of Capt. Parry. — In order to steer clear of ice, they were now occasionally obliged to deviate from the direct line of their course. A register-thermometer, let down to the supposed depth of 650 fathoms, and a well-corked bottle, fastened to the line at 200 fathoms above the lead, indicated a lowering of the temperature from 52° at the surface to $40^{\circ} 5'$ at the bottom, and to 41° at the depth to which the bottle had descended. 'This experiment,' observes the author, 'in shewing the water to be colder at a great depth than at the surface, and in proportion to the increase of the descent, coincides with the observations of Captain Ross and Lieutenant Parry, on their late voyage to these seas, but is contrary to the results obtained by Capt. Buchan and myself, on our recent voyage to the north, between Spitzbergen and Greenland, in which sea we invariably found the water brought from any great depth to be warmer than that at the surface.' May not the difference be owing to submarine currents, of a different temperature from that of the mass which they traverse? — In navigating the high latitudes, the proximity of ice may often be announced, before it is seen, by a strict and hourly attention to the decrease of temperature at sea. — One of the largest icebergs, which the vessels encountered, was ascertained to be 149 feet in height; and it is here properly remarked, that these congealed masses are frequently magnified through a hazy atmosphere, and their dimensions accordingly exaggerated.

On the morning of August 7. the island of Resolution was indistinctly seen through the mist: but, as the fog became more dense, the *Princess of Wales* repeatedly struck on the rocky cliffs, and leaked so much that the crew were not only exhausted with working at the pumps, but for some time anticipated destruction. By renewing their exertions, however, on the following day, and inserting felt and oakum in the leaks, they perceived in the evening that the pumps required to be used only at intervals of ten minutes. The *Wear*, meantime, had disappeared; and the most serious apprehensions

sions were entertained for her safety.—Early on the 12th, as the two remaining ships were abreast of the Upper Savage island, the Esquimaux inhabitants came around them in canoes to barter, and evinced considerable cunning in making their bargains.

‘ Their principal commodities were, oil, sea-horse teeth, whale-bone, seal-skin dresses, caps and boots, deer-skins and horns, and models of their canoes; and they received in exchange small saws, knives, nails, tin-kettles, and needles. It was pleasing to behold the exultation and to hear the shouts of the whole party, when an acquisition was made by any one; and not a little ludicrous to behold the eagerness with which the fortunate person begged each article with his tongue, on receiving it, as a finish to the bargain, and an act of appropriation. They in no instance omitted this strange practice, however small the article; the needles even passed individually through the ceremony. The women brought imitations of men, women, animals, and birds, carved with labour and ingenuity out of sea-horse teeth. The dresses, and the figures of the animals, were not badly executed, but there was no attempt at the delineation of the countenances; and most of the figures were without eyes, ears, and fingers, the execution of which would, perhaps, have required more delicate instruments than they possess. The men set most value on saws; *kutice-wa-bak*, the name by which they distinguish them, was a constant cry. Knives were held next in estimation. An old sword was bartered from “the Eddystone,” and I shall long remember the universal burst of joy on the happy man’s receiving it. It was delightful to witness the general interest expressed for individual acquisitions. There was no desire shewn by any one to over-reach his neighbour, or to press towards any part of the ship where a bargain was making, until the person in possession of the place had completed his exchange and removed; and if any article happened to be demanded from the outer canoes, the men nearest assisted willingly in passing the thing across.’

August 19, in the evening, the ships passed Digges’s island, the termination of Hudson’s Straits; where the *Eddystone* parted company, being bound to Moose Factory. A harassing north wind prevented the *Princess of Wales*, for some days, from turning the end of Mansfield, and threatened to entangle her among the Sleepers, a dangerous chain of islands: but a favorable gale at length enabled her to shape her course across Hudson’s Bay, the variation of the needle decreasing very rapidly. On the 30th, she came to an anchor at York Flats, where the *Wear* had arrived before her, after a very narrow escape from shipwreck.

When he had conferred with Governor Williams and the gentlemen in the Company’s service, Capt. Franklin resolved to make the best of his way to their post at Cumberland House, which he still hoped to reach before the winter commenced:
the

the Governor furnishing him with an excellent boat and steersman, and the four Orkney mariners, with two attendants, forming the remainder of the crew. While the equipments were in preparation, the officers had leisure to examine York Factory, the chief depôt of the Hudson's Bay Company; and we are told that the principal buildings, in the form of a square, are placed on the west bank of the Hayes River, and in a flat swampy soil, of alluvial clay. The natural wood consists of willows, poplars, larch, spruce, and birch: but the unceasing demand for fuel has bared the country to some distance from the fort. Immense flocks of geese resort to the neighbourhood, on the approach of winter, and are hunted for a stock of provision during the cold season. A few Indians, belonging to the tribe of *Swampy Crees*, still frequent the establishment; and several of them were encamped on the outside of the stockade, in their moose-skin tents. They had a squalid appearance, and, like other tribes, were suffering from the combined effects of hooping-cough and measles. Here the weather proved very unfavorable for celestial observations; and a succession of fresh breezes prevented the determination of the magnetic force. The position of the Factory was found to be in lat. $57^{\circ} 00' 03''$ N. and long. $92^{\circ} 26'$ W. Most of our readers may be aware that the rivalry between the Hudson's Bay and the North West Companies had degenerated into acts of hostility: but Capt. Franklin very wisely resolved to take no part in their quarrels, and to receive counsel and assistance from the agents of either as opportunity might dictate.

The boat having been completed on the 9th of September, the expedition was again in motion, though under no very flattering auspices; for the destined stores and provisions were too bulky for the stowage that could be spared, and were consequently curtailed: while the party were fated to commence a tedious progress up Hayes, Steel, and Hill Rivers, to cross the Swampy Lake, and to hold dreary converse with other lakes and rivers, being often drawn or tracked by their own people, harnessed to a rope, on wet, slippery, or uneven ground; or having to struggle with rapids, shoals, and portages, frequently advancing only a few miles in the course of a day. We premise these untoward circumstances, generally, that we may absolve our readers from attending to their painful recurrence, and leave room for noting a great diversity of incident and observation. The night-lodging was in a tent on shore, and the only bedding consisted of a buffalo's robe and a blanket. The general bearing of the course was S. W., and the route was regularly surveyed by Messrs. Back and Hood.

Several snow-showers occurred on the 17th: at bed-time, the thermometer stood at 30; and next morning, the country had assumed the garb of winter. — The unremitting exertions of the Orkney boatmen, their remaining all day in wet clothes, when the thermometer was far below the freezing point, and the immense loads which they carried over the portages, are mentioned as matters of not less surprize than the alacrity, with which they performed these laborious duties.

Knee-Lake, which was entered on the 25th, and which is so called from a sudden turn which it takes in the middle, is thickly studded with islands, having its shores low, and well wooded.

'About half a mile from the bend or *knee* of the lake, there is a small rocky islet, composed of magnetic iron ore, which affects the magnetic needle at a considerable distance. Having received previous information respecting this circumstance, we watched our compasses carefully, and perceived that they were affected at the distance of three hundred yards, both on the approach to and departure from the rock: on decreasing the distance, they became gradually more and more unsteady, and on landing they were rendered quite useless; and it was evident that the general magnetic influence was totally overpowered by the local attraction of the ore. When Kater's compass was held near to the ground on the N.W. side of the island, the needle dipped so much that the card could not be made to traverse by any adjustment of the hand; but on moving the same compass about thirty yards to the west part of the islet, the needle became horizontal, traversed freely, and pointed to the magnetic north. The dipping-needle being landed on the S.W. point of the islet, was adjusted as nearly as possible on the magnetic meridian by the sun's bearings, and found to vibrate freely, when the face of the instrument was directed to the east or west. The mean dip it gave was $80^{\circ} 37' 50''$. When the instrument was removed from the N.W. to the S.E. point, about twenty yards distant, and placed on the meridian, the needle ceased to traverse, but remained steady at an angle of 60° . On changing the face of the instrument, so as to give a S.E. and N.W. direction to the needle, it hung vertically. The position of the slaty strata of the magnetic ore is also vertical. Their direction is extremely irregular, being much contorted.'

Holey Lake is also remarkable for its numerous islands, and for the abundance of its large trouts, which frequently exceed forty pounds in weight. On the 3d of October, the party reached the *Painted Stone*, a low rock, on each side of which the marshy streams take different courses. Lake Winnipeg, and its tributaries, are rendered so turbid by the suspension of white clay, that sunken rocks are seldom perceived, and thus prove dangerous to boats, especially when sailing under a fresh breeze. The increasing cold induced Capt

Franklin

Franklin to accept Governor Williams's kind invitation to winter at his station of Cumberland House, where the boat arrived on the 23d; and, within a month, the men had prepared a house for winter-quarters, when the cold began to be very severe. 'Some Indians arrived in search of provision, having been totally incapacitated from hunting by sickness; the poor creatures looked miserably ill, and they represented their distress to have been extreme. Few recitals are more affecting than those of their sufferings during unfavorable seasons, and in bad situations for hunting and fishing. Many assurances have been given me that men and women are yet living who have been reduced to feed upon the bodies of their own family, to prevent actual starvation; and a shocking case was cited to us of a woman who had been a principal agent in the destruction of several persons, and amongst the number her husband and nearest relatives, in order to support life.'

The log-houses of the two companies at this post are constructed without much attention to comfort; and the want of glass for the windows is very imperfectly supplied by a sort of coarse parchment, prepared by the women from the skin of the rein-deer. The surrounding land is low, but the soil not infertile, being capable of producing abundance of corn and pot-herbs. Horses feed very well, even during winter; and the buffalo scrapes away the snow with its feet, to get at the herbage beneath. Although the thermometer, after the 12th of December, was always under zero, and sometimes so much as thirty degrees, yet the travellers never suffered any serious inconvenience from going abroad in the day-time; and the Commander even determined to proceed with a part of his number into the Athabasca department, the residents of which, he was assured, were in possession of more accurate information relative to the nature and resources of the country lying to the north of the great Slave Lake. Leaving directions, therefore, with Dr. Richardson and Mr. Hood, to regulate their movements in the spring, he departed on the 18th of January, 1820; accompanied by Mr. Back and John Hepburn, the English seaman, and furnished with two carioles and two sledges, with their drivers and dogs:—but, before we pursue their wintry way, it may be proper to advert to Dr. Richardson's observations on the Cree Indians, and the country around Cumberland House.

Of the district belonging to this post the extent is about 150 miles, from east to west, along the banks of the Saskatchewan, and it has been roundly conjectured to comprize 20,000 square miles. It is at present frequented by 120 Indian hunters, whose wives and children may amount to

about 380. The origin of these Indians, as of the other aboriginal inhabitants of America, is involved in confusion and obscurity; and their character and condition have, no doubt, been much modified by intercourse with Europeans. Though vain, fickle, indolent, improvident, and not strictly observant of truth, they are kind and hospitable, acknowledge the rights of property, and are now rather inclined to peaceful habits. With them the medicine-bag is an indispensable article of a hunter's equipment, and, when in the hands of a sly conjuror, enables him to fatten on the credulity of his countrymen. They are both capable and desirous of being taught: but the whites have more generally descended to their level in usages and manners, than raised them to their own by means of education. Let those philosophers, who maintain the uniformity of the savage character, explain why some of the untutored tribes of mankind are notorious pilferers, while others, like the Crees, shew inviolable respect to the property of others. 'In some cases, indeed, they carry this principle to a degree of self-denial which would hardly be expected. It often happens that meat, which has been paid for, (if the poisonous draught it procures them can be considered as payment,) is left at their lodges until a convenient opportunity occurs of carrying it away. They will rather pass several days without eating than touch the meat thus intrusted to their charge, even when there exists a prospect of replacing it.' They are, however, addicted to gaming, and to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors. Some of the men keep several wives; and chastity is too often disregarded. Most of the drudgery devolves on the women: but, while the husbands affect to despise the softer sex, they generally treat their wives with kindness; though on solemn occasions they will not speak to them, nor even admit them into their presence. Both parents are excessively indulgent to their children, seldom or never punishing them, and, from principle, concealing nothing from them: so that boys and girls are, almost from infancy, acquainted with all the mysteries of the sexes. In the endurance of hunger, and other evils incident to the life of a hunter, the Crees manifest uncommon fortitude: but any unusual accident at once dispirits them; and they will not now venture to meet their enemies in open warfare, unless with the advantage of superior numbers; for they feel their dependance on the traders for ammunition and clothing, and above all for spirits, to obtain which they will crouch with the most abject deportment. Hence their character has declined among neighbouring nations, and many of their peculiar usages have either become obsolete or are but partially observed:

served: but the painful operation of tatooing, is still almost universally performed. On the subject of religion they are reserved: but some of them have adopted portions of the creed of their European neighbours, and all speak of an universal deluge, which they explain in a very childish manner. They occasionally refer to the Great Master of Life, and also to an Evil Spirit. Their Deity is sometimes represented by a rude effigy of the human figure, but more commonly by the tops of a few willow-bushes tied together. Dr. Richardson's account of the dedication of offerings to this divinity, of the games and diversions of the Cree Indians, and of various traits of their manners and customs, will be found amusing, and not destitute of instruction; since it is by viewing our species in all its phases of history and situation, that we may ultimately hope to generalize the principles of human society.

With regard to the rates of the traffic for furs which have been settled between these Indians and the traders, they are described as somewhat arbitrary: but it is much more to be deplored that the value of rum as an exchangeable commodity is so great in the eyes of the natives, and that tricks are practised on them by the numerous agents of the rival concerns; a system which threatens to recoil on its authors, and which may prove finally destructive of the fur-trade on its present footing. — The families at Cumberland, belonging to either establishment, live principally on fish, obtained early in winter from Beaver Lake, a distance of fifty miles over the snow, in sledges, each of which is drawn by three dogs and carries about 250 pounds weight. A considerable quantity of moose-meat is likewise procured from a distance of sixty or seventy miles; not to mention salted geese, and *pemmican*, or buffalo's flesh dried, pounded, and mixed with melted fat. Many of the laborers, and not a few of the clerks and agents, have Indian or half-bred wives, whose progeny are a clever and interesting race, but shamefully neglected in point of education. The surrounding soil generally consists of a thin layer of vegetable mould, covering strata of limestone, for the most part horizontal, but occasionally inclined at an angle of 40 degrees. In the catalogue of the vegetable products of the district, we meet with poplars, willows, pines, the sugar-maple, larch, elm, ash, *arbor vitæ*, cherry-trees, the highly prized *Lonicia ovalis*, gooseberry and currant bushes, strawberries, and various other berry-bearing plants. The moose and the rein-deer are the principal animals hunted for food. The more common fur-bearing species are, various sorts of foxes, the grey wolf, the black and red varieties of the American bear, the wolverene, Canadian lynx, martin, otter, musk-rat, and
beaver.

beaver. Among the fish most esteemed, are several species of *Salmo*, including the common trout, which occasionally weighs 60lbs., three species of *Cyprinus*, the pike, sturgeon, &c.

We now return to the Commander, and his frigid peregrinations. The sledges and carioles having been so loaded with the stores and instruments, he and his attendants were necessitated to travel on foot, and under such intense cold that, in the evening, the mercury of the thermometer froze in the bulb. With a fire at their feet, however, and protected by some pine-bushes and their travelling dresses, they slept profoundly in the open air. When the snow has sufficiently hardened, and the sledge is not overloaded, a team of three dogs will convey it at the rate of fifteen miles in a day: but, in the present instance, the progress was considerably slower. The beating of a track for the dogs proved very fatiguing; and all the English travellers suffered much pain from the galling of the snow-shoes. Their route lay still along the Saskatchewan; which, beyond Tobin's Falls, expands to the breadth of 500 yards, and has its banks well wooded with pines, poplars, birch, and willows. — On the 25th the march proved particularly laborious, from a fresh fall of a great quantity of snow. The relics of two red deer were found at the base of a perpendicular cliff, over which it was conjectured that they had precipitated themselves when pursued by the wolves; who seem systematically thus to drive them to destruction, and then descend at their leisure to feast on the mangled carcases. — On the following day, the detachment passed the confluence of the south branch of the river. The night of the 28th proved so rigorously cold, that the tea froze in the tin-pots before it could be drunk, and a mixture of spirits and water became quite thickened by congelation: yet no inconvenience was experienced during the night.

At Carlton House, which the party reached on the 31st, they were agreeably refreshed by the hospitality of Mr. Prudens, who had charge of that post; and they had an opportunity of changing their travelling dresses, which had been worn for fourteen days. Here they were gratified with a sight of some Stone Indians, whose prepossessing appearance seemed to belie their characteristic perfidy; for against these daring marauders the traders are obliged to be constantly on their guard. The Stone Indians league with the Crees against their enemies to the west, whom they denominate *Slave Indians*, and who are reported to be not less ferocious and rapacious. On some occasions, each side musters from three to four hundred horsemen: when, as they rush at once to close quarters, and seldom spare any of the prisoners, the slaughter

slaughter is generally considerable. — During their stay at this place, the author and his suite visited first a Cree encampment, in which they were favorably received; and next a buffalo-pound, in which the animals are secured somewhat in the manner practised with the elephants in Ceylon. The Indians likewise shew considerable dexterity and run no small risk in hunting the buffalo on horseback, even when the thermometer indicates 30° or 40° below zero. — Carlton House is pleasantly situated in lat. $52^{\circ} 50' 47''$ N., and in long. $106^{\circ} 12' 42''$ W., encompassed by a fertile land, which yields ample returns of wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes. Beyond the steep bank behind the house, stretches an immense plain towards the sources of the Missouri; being, in the whole of that range, seldom interrupted by hills or even rising grounds, and affording abundant pasture to many grazing animals.

In this part of the journal are inserted some observations by Dr. Richardson on bronchocele, or *goître*, which are so far valuable as they prove that this disorder is not caused by drinking snow-water. 'Burnt sponge has been tried, and found to remove the disease, but an exposure to the same cause immediately re-produces it.' This cause, we are led to infer, is the drinking of river-water impregnated with calcareous matter.

The gentlemen having recovered from the pains and swellings occasioned by the march from Cumberland, they resumed their journey on the 8th of February. In a few days the weather became considerably milder, to which comfort was frequently added the accommodation of a beaten track; and on the 17th they arrived at the Company's post at Green Lake, where they were kindly received by Mr. Macfarlane, and Mr. Cameron, of the north-west establishment. A similar reception awaited them at *Isle à la Crosse*, where they halted on the evening of the 23d. The lake in which this island is situated is celebrated for the abundance of delicate *tittameg*, or *white fish*, (*Coregonus albus*), which are caught with nets during the greatest part of the year, and weigh from five to fifteen pounds. Here much valuable information and much kind assistance were received from Mr. Clark, an experienced northern traveller, who had resided some years on Mackenzie's River. Not satisfied with procuring the requisite accommodations for recommencing the journey on the 5th of March, he accompanied the travellers until the 13th, when he took leave on the banks of the Methye Lake. The flat plains now gave place to picturesque ranges of hills, commanding the most romantic prospects. 'At one spot, termed the Cockscomb, the passenger stands insulated as it were on a small slip, whence a false step might precipitate him

him into the glen.' In descending from these heights, the dogs were taken from the sledges, and the latter were guided by the men, who could with difficulty arrest their rapid career. The 17th brought the travellers to the banks of the Athabasca, or Elk River, which is about two miles broad, and includes various islands. Little that is worthy of notice occurred till the 26th, when the wanderers reached Chipewyan; where they met with the most kind and hospitable reception, from Messrs. Keith and Black, of the North-West Company.

At this station, much satisfactory intelligence was obtained relative to the countries which remained to be traversed, and other matters connected with the ulterior objects of the expedition. In the course of his investigations, Capt. Franklin came in contact with the step-son of Matonnabee, who had accompanied Hearne on his journey to the sea: but, as he was then a mere boy, he had forgotten most of the circumstances. His statements, however, substantially coincided with those of Hearne; and he was positive that they had reached the sea, though none of them tasted the water.

The forts of Chipewyan and Wedderburn are the principal posts of the two companies in this department; and they are conveniently placed for communicating with the Slave and Peace Rivers. Here Spring burst on the travellers, as if by enchantment; verdure, foliage, and blossoms, almost instantaneously succeeding the disappearance of the snow. — That portion of the Athabasca Lake which is near the establishment is called the *Lake of Hills*, the northern shore and islands being high and rocky. — The Chipewyan, or northern Indians, who resort to the settlements, are reserved, selfish, and regardless even of the duties of hospitality: but they are not destitute of affection to their kindred; and Dr. Richardson communicates a curious and well authenticated exemplification of the force of their parental attachment, in the case of an Indian whose wife died in labor, and who afterward brought up the child with all the care of a female nurse: being supplied even with milk in his breast for its nourishment, which was granted to his prayer 'to the Great Master of Life.' — The chiefs of these Indians have now lost much of their power and influence; but they are still treated with the usual external marks of respect. From vanity, they style themselves "the People," while they designate all other nations by the names of their respective countries. As they pretend to trace their origin to a dog, some fanatic, a few years ago, persuaded them of the impropriety of employing that animal in labor; and they at once, rather unaccountably, destroyed them all, and have now

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on the women. Thus we see how a trifling incident may change the habits and usages of savage communities; and thus we may sometimes be enabled to reconcile the apparently discordant statements of travellers and voyagers, who have written on the same tribes at different periods of their history.

April 15th, the first shower of rain occurred that had fallen at Cumberland for six months. On the 17th, the thermometer stood at 77 in the shade, and the whole country was deluged by the melting of the snow. 'The noise made by the frogs which this inundation produced is almost incredible. There is strong reason to believe that they outlive the severity of winter. They have often been found frozen and revived by warmth, nor is it possible that the multitude which incessantly filled our ears with its discordant notes could have been matured in two or three days.'

We should now mention that Dr. Richardson and Mr. Hood embarked in their canoes on the 13th of June, and prosecuted their way by Sturgeon River, Bear Lake, &c. At the Otter Portage, one of the canoes was upset, and a Canadian guide unfortunately perished. Along the Mississippi their progress was tortuous and interrupted, but over the dangerous and swelling surface of the Isle à la Croix Lake, they advanced with unusual speed. During the whole route, they were terribly tormented by the severe inflictions of the mosquitos, and occasionally by the horse-fly and sand-fly.

Early on the 18th of July, the expedition, consisting of the officers, Hepburn, and sixteen Canadian voyagers, and distributed with a very scanty stock of provisions into three canoes, recommenced the toilsome and perilous vocation of navigating rivers and lakes, to proceed by the Slave Lake and Fort Providence, over innumerable rapids and portages. The nets furnished them with hardly any fish: but a buffalo which had accidentally plunged into the river was very opportunely killed and secured. At the posts of both Companies, on Moose-deer island, some additional provisions were procured, and an interpreter was engaged for the Copper Indians. An agreement was also formed with Mr. Wentzel, of the North-West Company, who was charged with the management of the Indians and of the voyagers, and with the distribution of the stores; a residence of twenty years in the country, and an acquaintance with the Chipewyan language, having eminently qualified him for the performance of such duties. Akaitcho, chief of an Indian tribe, stipulated to attend on the expedition, and to exert himself with his people in procuring subsistence by the way; consenting also to abstain from

from acts of hostility against the Esquimaux, with whom his tribe now wished to live on terms of peace.

From Fort Providence the travellers took their departure on the 2d of August, directing their route northward to Copper-Mine River, a region which had never been visited by any European. According to their observations, the breadth of the Great Slave Lake is 60 miles less than it is laid down in Arrowsmith's map. In the Yellow-Knife River, which occasionally dilates into the form of a lake, they were joined by Akaitcho and his hunters in seventeen canoes, some of which were managed by loquacious and quarrelsome women. The portages multiplied as they advanced; and the strength of the people, especially when they were compelled to subsist on scanty fare, began to sink under their accumulating burdens. By advice of the guides, they quitted the river, and entered on a chain of nine lakes, extending to the north-east; and, having traversed them all, they returned, by a portage, to the river, halting for two days on the borders of Lower Carp Lake. Here the men, regaled with fish, recovered from their fatigues: the joyful tidings were on the next day announced that the hunters had killed some rein-deer; and no serious deficiency of food was experienced during the rest of this journey, the hunters regularly bringing in deer. The Yellow-Knife River had now dwindled into an insignificant stream, and could scarcely be traced beyond the next lake. On the 19th all arrived at the station which the Indians had recommended for winter-quarters, and which was found fully to answer expectation.

As Akaitcho and his Indians testified the most decided aversion to proceed to the Copper-Mine River at this advanced period of the season, it was finally determined that a party, under the direction of Messrs. Back and Hood, should be dispatched to visit that river, and report such particulars as might conduce to facilitate the operations of the next spring. These officers accordingly embarked on the 29th, with eight Canadians, one Indian, and an interpreter. On the 9th of September, Captain Franklin and Dr. Richardson, attended by Hepburn, an old Indian, and one of the voyagers, commenced a pedestrian excursion in the same direction, leaving Mr. Wetzell in charge of the remaining men and of the winter-establishment at Fort Enterprize. After a march of sixteen miles, the foot-party halted in the evening, supped on rein-deer venison, stretched themselves on a pine-bush, and wrapped in their blankets enjoyed profound sleep. 'The small quantity of bed-clothes we carried,' observes Captain Franklin, 'induced us to sleep without undressing.' Old

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Keskarrah followed a different plan; he stripped himself to the skin, and having toasted his body for a short time over the embers of the fire, he crept under his deer-skin and rags, previously spread out as smoothly as possible, and coiling himself up in a circular form, fell asleep instantly. This custom of undressing to the skin, even when lying in the open air, is common to all the Indian tribes.' As this Mr. Keskarrah persisted in taking his fellow-travellers over the summit of every hill that lay in their course, they were more annoyed than they might otherwise have been by cold winds and showers of snow. On the 12th they arrived at Point Lake, an expansion or arm of the Copper-Mine River, and, having made their observations, hastened to retrace their footsteps to their winter-station. Here they found the other party also returned from their explorations, having, from the want of a proper water-conveyance, left their canoe behind them.

In his record of the transactions during a ten months' residence at Fort Enterprize, the author purposely omits many of the ordinary occurrences of a North-American winter, which have been so well detailed by Ellis and others, chiefly confining himself to such circumstances as might more or less directly influence the proceedings of the next summer. On the 6th of October, the log-house having been constructed, the tents, which had become very cold and comfortless, were struck, and a cheerful evening was passed before a blazing fire. On the 10th, upwards of 2000 rein-deer were reckoned in the course of a short walk: but, as the cold continued to increase, these animals began to disappear, in quest of more southerly and better sheltered pastures. The remarks on the natural history of this species will amply reward the trouble of perusal. On the 18th, Mr. Back and Mr. Wentzel set out for Fort Providence, accompanied by two travellers, and two Indians, with their wives, to expedite the transmission of the expected stores from Cumberland House, and to endeavor to procure additional supplies from the establishment at the Slave Lake; or even, in case of necessity, and of its being found practicable, to proceed to Chipewyan. The result was not very successful, but partial supplies were obtained.

The fishing on Winter Lake was closed on the 5th of November, on account of the cold.

It may be worthy of notice here, that the fish froze as they were taken out of the nets, in a short time became a solid mass of ice, and by a blow or two of the hatchet were easily split open, when the intestines might be removed in one lump. If in the completely frozen state they were thawed before the fire, they

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recovered their animation. This was particularly the case with the carp, and we had occasion to observe it repeatedly, as Dr. Richardson occupied himself in examining the structure of the different species of fish, and was always, in the winter, under the necessity of thawing them before he could cut them. We have seen a carp recover so far as to leap about with much vigour, after it had been frozen for thirty-six hours.'

The weather during December was the coldest which the party experienced in America, the thermometer having, on one occasion, descended to 57 below zero, and having never risen beyond 6 above it, while the mean was 29.7.

'During these intense colds, however, the atmosphere was generally calm, and the wood-cutters and others went about their ordinary occupations without using any extraordinary precautions, yet without feeling any bad effects. They had their rein-deer shirts on, leathern mittens lined with blankets, and furred caps; but none of them used any defence for the face, nor did they need to do so. Indeed we have already mentioned that the heat is extracted most rapidly from the body during strong breezes, and most of those who have perished from cold in this country have fallen a sacrifice to their being overtaken on a lake or other unsheltered place by a storm of wind. The intense colds were, however, detrimental to us in another way. The trees froze to their very centres, and became as hard as stones, and more difficult to cut. Some of the axes were broken daily, and by the end of the month, we had only one left that was fit for felling trees.'

The officers usually occupied their day in making up their journals, taking a short walk, or reading and re-reading some news-papers and magazines which had been transmitted from England; and in the evening they joined the men in the hall, and partook of their amusements. They seem uniformly to have noted the appearances of the *aurora borealis*, which in those latitudes are both frequent and diversified. Each sedulously took down his own observations: the Captain re-calculated his reckonings; and Mr. Hood formed the charts, 'and made those drawings of birds, plants, and fishes which cannot appear in this work, but which have been the admiration of every one who has seen them.' This intimation is somewhat enigmatical; and we can only express our regret that such highly-prized productions have been separated from the work, which we presume they were destined to embellish and illustrate. — Dr. Richardson contrived to procure, from under the snow, specimens of most of the lichens, and to trace the geological features of the district. Engaged in such pursuits, the ardent and cultivated mind dreams not of the heaviness of time, even under the rigors of protracted winter.

Mr. Back

Mr. Back returned on the 17th of March from Chipewyan; having performed an arduous and toilsome journey of 1104 miles, in snow-shoes, often across barren hills or frozen lakes, or swamps covered with snow, without any other wrappers at night than his deer-skin and blanket, and sometimes passing two or three days without tasting food. We have not room for the details; nor can we stay to note the discriminating characters of several tribes of Indians, as sketched by the pen of Captain Franklin, whom we have now to attend again on his onward course.

On leaving Copper-Mine River, and entering on the sea, it was proposed to reduce the complement of attendants to that of two canoes, and to allow Mr. Wentzel and the Indians to return home. In the mean time, some unpleasant discussions took place with Akaitcho, who expressed very unreasonable dissatisfaction at the manner in which he had been treated, and held language inconsistent with his previous stipulations; but, by proper management, his angry feelings were allayed. St. Germain, also, the cleverest of the two interpreters, had endeavored to instil prejudices into the minds of the Indians, and to dissuade them from removing to such a distance from home; so that his proceedings required to be circumspectly watched. Under these circumstances, on the 4th of June, the first party, in charge of Dr. Richardson, at length started. The men returned on the 13th with the Doctor's report; and the canoes being now ready, all finally moved on the 14th. On Point Lake, both men and dogs were found to be jaded with fatigue, and galled with sores; but, by adopting some new arrangements for lightening the burdens, they were enabled to advance more rapidly; and on the 28th they reached the Copper-Mine River, at first an inconsiderable stream. Farther down, it widened to 200 yards, but contained much decayed and doubtful ice, which was traversed with risk and trepidation; and again the canoes were involved in a series of rapids, at the imminent hazard of being broken or upset. On the 4th of July, the hunters sent in eight musk-cows which they had killed, and which formed a most acceptable supply of food.

The musk-oxen, like the buffalo, herd together in bands, and generally frequent the barren grounds during the summer-months; keeping near to the banks of the rivers, but retire to the woods in winter. They seem to be less watchful than most other wild animals, and when grazing are not difficult to approach, provided the hunters go against the wind. When two or three men get so near a herd as to fire at them from different points, these animals instead of separating or running away, huddle closer together, and several are generally killed; but if the wound is not mortal, they

they become enraged and dart in the most furious manner at the hunters, who must be very dexterous to evade them. They can defend themselves by their powerful horns against the wolves and bears, which, as the Indians say, they not unfrequently kill. They feed on the same substances with the rein-deer, and the prints of the feet of these two animals are so much alike that it requires the eye of an experienced hunter to distinguish them. The largest of these animals killed by us did not exceed in weight three hundred pounds. The flesh has a musky disagreeable flavour, particularly when the animal is lean, which unfortunately for us was the case with all that were now killed by us.

Though a day was allotted to a survey of the Copper Mountains, only a few small pieces of native copper were found, and the best specimens occurred among the stones in the valleys. Since the Indians have been furnished with iron instruments from the trading posts, they have discontinued their annual visits to these hills; and it is added that the impracticability of navigating the river up from the sea, together with the want of wood to form an establishment, would render the working of the ore in this district a very unprofitable concern.

As Dr. Richardson, who happened to be on the first watch in the evening, was contemplating the river from the top of a hill, his attention was suddenly roused by nine white wolves, approaching in the form of a crescent, and apparently intending to drive him down the precipice. 'On his rising up they halted, and when he advanced they made way for his passage down to the tents. He had his gun in his hand, but forebore to fire, lest there should be Esquimaux in the neighbourhood. During Mr. Wentzel's middle watch, the wolves appeared repeatedly on the summit of the hill, and at one time they succeeded in driving a deer over the precipice.'

The two interpreters were dispatched to offer presents and conciliatory propositions to some bands of Esquimaux, who professed peace and amity, but shewed their suspicions by generally retiring from their haunts; while the Indians, who dreaded to come in contact with them, requested to be released from their engagements, and to return home. They were accordingly allowed to take their departure, on an understanding that they would leave deposits of provisions at Fort Enterprize, and on the banks of the Copper-Mine River, for the eventual use of the expedition in its return. — On the evening of the 18th of July, the encampment took place at the junction of the river with the sea.

'The river is here about a mile wide, but very shallow, being barred nearly across by sand-banks, which run out from the main land on each side to a low alluvial island that lies in the centre, and

and forms two channels : of these the westernmost only is navigable even for canoes, the other being obstructed by a stony bar. The islands to seaward are high and numerous, and fill the horizon in many points of the compass : the only open space, seen from an eminence near the encampment, being from N. by E. to N. E. by N. Towards the east the land was like a chain of islands, the ice surrounded the islands apparently in a compact body, leaving a channel between its edge and the main of about three miles. The water in this channel was of a clear green colour, and decidedly salt. Mr. Hearne could have only tasted it at the mouth of the river, when he pronounced it to be merely brackish. A rise and fall of four inches in the water was observed. The shore is strewn with a considerable quantity of drift timber, which is principally of the wood of the *populus balsamifera*, but none of it of great size. We also picked up some decayed wood far out of the reach of the water. A few stunted willows were growing near the encampment. Some ducks, gulls, and partridges, were seen to-day. As I had to make up despatches for England to be sent by Mr. Wentzel, the nets were set in the interim, and we were rejoiced to find that they produced a sufficiency of fish to supply the party. The fish caught were, the Copper-Mine River salmon, white fish, and two species of pleuronectes. We felt a considerable change of temperature on reaching the sea-coast, produced by the wind's changing from the southward to the N. W. Our Canadian voyagers complained much of the cold, but they were amused with their first view of the sea, and particularly with the sight of the seals that were swimming about near the entrance of the river ; but these sentiments gave place to despondency before the evening had elapsed. They were terrified at the idea of a voyage through an icy sea in bark canoes. They speculated on the length of the journey, the roughness of the sea, the uncertainty of provisions, the exposure to cold where we could expect no fuel, and the prospect of having to traverse the barren grounds to get to some establishment. The two interpreters expressed their apprehensions with the least disguise, and again urgently applied to be discharged ; but only one of the Canadians made a similar request. Judging that the constant occupation of their time as soon as we were enabled to commence the voyage would prevent them from conjuring up so many causes of fear, and that familiarity with scenes on the coast would in a short time enable them to give scope to their natural cheerfulness, the officers endeavored to ridicule their fears, and happily succeeded for the present. The manner in which our faithful Hepburn viewed the element that he had been so long accustomed to, contributed not a little to make them ashamed of their fears.

The distance from Fort Enterprize to the mouth of Copper-Mine River is about 384 miles, along 117 of which the canoes and luggage were dragged over ice and snow. The latitude of the encampment was found to be $67^{\circ} 47' 50''$ N., and the longitude $115^{\circ} 36' 49''$ W. ; — a reckoning very dif-

ferent from that which was stated by Hearne. — Despatches were now delivered to Mr. Wentzel, and he took his departure with four Canadians, who were discharged to reduce the consumption of food : but the party remaining, including officers, still amounted to 20 individuals. Mr. Wentzel was moreover furnished with distinct instructions relative to placing a supply of provisions at Fort Enterprize, and various other particulars.

In a future article, it will be our painful duty to attend on Captain Franklin and his associates when tossed on a stormy and icy sea, and retracing their long wanderings amid privations, sufferings, and disaster.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Poems on various Subjects.* With introductory Remarks on the present State of Science and Literature in France. By Helen Maria Williams. 8vo. pp. 298. 12s. Boards. Whitakers. 1823.

THE name of Miss Williams has been so long and so frequently before the public, and her literary character, from its outset, has been so connected with some of the deepest and most pathetic feelings of human nature during revolutionary periods, that it cannot have been easily dismissed from general recollection. Her labors in the vast field of modern literature and research have, indeed, been equally various and persevering, occupying the whole of the present together with the latter part of the past century : her opinions have given rise to some discussion ; and her political as well as literary views have subjected her to much periodical animadversion. The disputed points and questions, however, leading to this mixed controversy, having been for some time set at rest, it would here be worse then tedious and useless to revive them ; and we shall pass on without farther comment on her former productions in the shape of Letters, Novels, Travels, and Poems, excepting as they are recalled to us by the compositions in the work before us.

It is fairly stated by the writer that some of the contents of this volume are not now for the first time laid before her readers, having been published many years since in two small volumes, which have been ‘long out of print :’ others have been scattered in different works ; and those which now first make their appearance are rather of a slighter texture, and form by no means the most interesting portion of the whole. Such, we think, as bear reference to public events, and most
of

of which have already been published, are far superior to the rest; for they have more spirit and poetry, because dictated perhaps by those liberal and patriotic feelings, for which the muse of Miss W. has long been celebrated. Of this character are the "Peruvian Tales in Verse," (formerly given to the public under the title of "Peru,"), "A Poem on the Bill passed for regulating the Slave-Trade," and two odes, "On the taking of the Bastille," and on "The Peace signed between the French and English" at Amiens in the year 1801. Of this last she observes that the only memorable circumstance attending it was its incurring the displeasure of Bonaparte, who found it in a corner of the Morning Chronicle, and ordered it to be translated into the French language. 'He pretended to be highly irritated at the expression "encircled by thy subject waves," applied to England, and which he said was treasonable towards France; but what he really resented was, that his name was not once pronounced in the Ode. However singular it may seem that he should have paid the slightest attention to such a circumstance, it is nevertheless true.' — Introduction, p. xiii.

This was not the only occasion on which the works of Miss W. seem to have elicited the sarcastic reflections and vituperation of the Ex-Emperor, as we learn from Mr. O'Meara's Memoirs; in which her account of "The Events of Napoleon's Government of a Hundred Days" is mentioned by the Great Exile with affected indifference and contempt. Miss W. appears to have met with this passage just as her own work was issuing from the press; and, in a note attached to the introduction, we find a refutation, quite satisfactory in our opinion, of the Emperor's more serious declarations: which consist, first, of its being a very silly composition, filled with a string of falsehoods; secondly, that he had never worn any other breast-plate than his flannel-waistcoat; and, thirdly, that the book, foolish as it was, must have been *well paid*. In justice to the defendant in this novel cause, it will be right to subjoin the defence in her own words. Though we would not exactly remark with Sir Roger de Coverley that "much may be said on both sides," yet both sides seem to have been somewhat overcharged by the colors of opposite principles and feelings, so freely bestowed on them. We can suppose, for instance, that Bonaparte believed the work to contain "the thing which was not," but which Miss W. equally believed to be true, such as wearing a breast-plate; and in more important matters, as well as in this, the alleged fact may either not exist, or may be so far disguised as only to furnish matter for dispute. On many historical points, however, in the remarks

before us, the author is quite borne out in her arguments; and the following passages are not less striking for their political truth and liberality, than for the feeling and eloquence with which they are expressed :

‘ With regard to the imputation of my work being silly, it is before the public, and must defend itself; but when Buonaparte added, “ that it was filled with falsehoods,” he well knew that all it uttered was truth; and indeed so much anger has something of a guilty air; nothing is calmer than innocence. With respect to the slight circumstance of his having worn, during the latter part of his reign, some kind of mysterious ægis beneath his flannel-waistcoat, I shall only repeat that it was a fact of public notoriety at Paris, and that it gave a very awkward appearance to his person. But I hasten from his coating to a far more serious allegation against me, that of having been *well paid*. What pages of my volume deserved best the recompense? Was it the tribute offered to Kosciusko, the hero of Poland; or to La Fayette, the veteran of liberty in two worlds? It is the misfortune of those who write in times of revolution, that every successive government begins by proclaiming principles which the friend of liberty is tempted to applaud, and as regularly ends by governing in its own way. Exulting in the fall of one tyranny, the heart deludes itself with the hope of better things from new rulers, who take care, in their turn, to convict the dreamer of folly. All I said of Buonaparte, in that volume, were well known facts, upon which the stamp of fate was impressed, and which, while I traced them in a feeble sketch, History had already seized, and graven with her iron pen. If the glow of enthusiastic feeling were not one of the things which it is difficult to buy or sell, the person by whom I might most reasonably be suspected of having been heretofore paid, was Buonaparte himself. But no: when I offered incense at his shrine, when I never pronounced his name without emotion, he had no recompense to give: he was not then an Emperor. My first lavish panegyric on Buonaparte, in my “ Tour through Switzerland,” was published before he went to Egypt, when no imperial diadem bound his brows, and he was only the Deliverer of Italy. At the date of my succeeding eulogium, in “ A Sketch of the State of France towards the End of the Eighteenth Century,” he was simply first Consul, with no other title than that of Citizen; but I own I praised him as extravagantly as if consuls, like kings, could do no wrong. His imperial purple at length cured my enthusiasm, and no odes of my inditing hailed his coronation, or his marriage; I saluted with no acclamations the daughter of the Cæsars, and essayed no imitation of Pollio on the birth of the King of Rome.

‘ Weary of military despotism, I rejoiced indeed in the deliverance of the country, although not insensible to the bitter pang which must have rankled in the breast of the fallen monarch; but while his misfortunes are pitied by the lovers of liberty, they must not be compelled to mourn over him as its friend. He! who
finished

finished the Revolution by undoing all it had done; who overthrew its best and most sacred institutions, with the mockery of a senate that was prostrate, and a legislature that was mute; who gave back to France her courtly pageantry, her titles, her distinctions, her feudal majorats, and wrested from her those equal rights for which she had sacrificed them all; till at length his frantic ambition, unsatisfied with the inheritance of empires, brought hosts of strangers within the gates of the capital, while Liberty hid her prostrate head in the dust. It was he who accustomed Europe to the action of immense masses of armed men, and thus gave rise to those Holy Alliances of bayonets, which hover over the nations with new invasions, new despotism, and consequently new revolutions.

Not meaning to undervalue the merits of Miss W.'s poetry, which is always above mediocrity though wanting in some of the higher characteristics of genius, we must be allowed to express a far higher opinion of her prose-writings, which is by no means lessened by the above example. Indeed, the value of the present work, in our estimation, is considerably enhanced by the force and elegance of its prefatory remarks, the spirit and good feeling which they display, and the correct information which they furnish relative to the existing state of science and literature in France. We are disposed to coincide in her observation, that the characters of some of the most eminent men of that country have not been duly appreciated in our own; in fact, they have either been wholly passed over in silence, or mentioned without receiving the degree of approbation which they merited by their persevering labors and their learning. We cannot refrain, therefore, from copying her tribute to the characters of the great individuals whom her pages record:

'The professors of science in this country may indeed be safely left to defend themselves. The learned only are fit to be their own judges, and I know not what my eulogium could add to such names as those of La Place, Delambre, Haüy, Cuvier, Jussieu, Gay-Lussac, Arrago, Biot, Thenard, and many others worthy to augment the list. Some of those persons belong, from their age, to the new order of things; and others, whose talents had already shed lustre on the old monarchy, proceeded in their learned labors during the course of the Revolution, and even amidst the crimes that marked the reign of terror, as if they sought to console mankind for those passing horrors by the eternal lessons of wisdom and truth. What, for instance, can be more noble and affecting than the conduct of Condorcet and Rabaut St. Etienne, at that period? who, while *hors la loi*, and certain, if their retreat were discovered, of being dragged without trial to the scaffold, pursued with the calmness of a superior nature the lofty speculations of philosophy, and left posthumous works, in which they

disdained to make the slightest allusion to their own desperate situation, which for both terminated in death! *

The French literati, orators, poets, and statesmen, next come under the writer's consideration; and their various claims to a higher degree of reputation, than many English persons have yet deigned to bestow on them, are canvassed in the most eloquent and able, if not always in the most impartial manner. Though the tone of the advocate, however, is sometimes apparent, the warm sincerity and earnestness with which her opinions are expressed give an air of impressive vivacity and truth to her representations, which is by no means unpleasing. We applaud the spirit in which they are written, and many of her observations are extremely just: they are at once of a high and ennobling and a pacific tendency; for they betray no rivalry, no invidious comparisons, no attempt to exalt the genius and talents of one nation by reflecting on those of the other. The real characters are placed before us, with their positive merits and pretensions; the political and the literary state of society, as it now exists, is pointed out to us; and the influence of the new order of things on the national character: — but no where are the institutions, the literature, and the character of the French and the English people brought into competition with each other, for the purpose of indulging particular feelings. The great talents of the more liberal party in the Chamber of French Deputies are mentioned with high commendation; and, among the poets, we have Le Brun, Delille, Chenier, Reynouard, Le Mercier, Arnaud, Jouy, Lavigne, Beranger, &c. We shall quote a portion of Miss W.'s remarks.

“ It were easy to exemplify the propitious effects which the new order of things has produced on poetry in many remarkable instances, but I shall confine myself to a few examples. There existed two poets in France at the period of the Revolution, pre-eminent above the rest: Le Brun, and Delille. Their poetry differed as much as their political opinions; that of Le Brun is daring and original; that of Delille elegant and polished; but the

“ * This last work of Condorcet is entitled “ *Sur la Perfectibilité de l'Homme* ;” that of Rabaut St. Etienne was a “ Treatise on Public Instruction,” which fell into the hands of the Omars of the day, and was destroyed. But a collection of his letters that have been preserved, and are now in the possession of Madame Rabaut-Pommier, his sister-in-law, will be published; they throw more light on the first years of the Revolution than any work that has yet appeared. He has also left a collection of Sermons, which he had preached in “ the Desert,” the sole temple of the French Protestants before the Revolution.”

Revolution exerted a powerful influence on both. Le Brun hailed that event with all the fervour of an impassioned spirit; his patriotic odes and invocations to Liberty have

“ Thoughts that breathe, and words that burn.”

Liberty lends his age new fires, and gives his muse the exulting glow of youth; he sweeps the chords of his lyre with a bolder hand, and draws forth tones of more lofty inspiration; he stamps upon his verse all the vehemence of his political sentiments, and proves that what Pope has said of the sorrows of love may be applied to the triumphs of liberty:

“ He best can paint them who shall feel them most.”

Le Brun sometimes honoured me with his visits, and loved to recite his poetical compositions, even to a large circle; this is one of the last things a man of letters in England would chuse to undertake; but it has always been the practice and the fashion, under every regime, in France. His tall meagre form, and his long thin visage, became full of animation while he repeated his verses; he seemed possessed by a kind of poetic furor; his eye flashed fire, his voice was sonorous; but, with a temper impetuous as his song, he could bear no interruption; irritated by the slightest movement, the lowest whisper in the apartment, he would suddenly pause, and sometimes inflexibly refuse to proceed. Irascible in his temper, warm in his friendships, and no less violent in his enities, he excelled in epigram, which he could point with a cruel skill that never missed its aim. Upon the whole, it cannot be denied that Le Brun was a greater poet for having witnessed the Revolution; that his muse took a higher flight after escaping from the trammels in which poetry had been confined in France; and that, by mingling the dearest interests of mankind with the passionate language of the muse, he gave his divine art a charm and an empire till then unknown in his country.*

Delille, the contemporary of Le Brun, and like him advanced in age at the period of the Revolution, was one of its most resolute antagonists. But we are sometimes subject, by a sort of fatality, to the influence of what we hate; Delille, impelled by his political opinions to emigrate, took refuge in England, where he no doubt enlarged the sphere of his ideas, acquired perhaps more greatness of thought, and enriched his imagination with bolder images. While devoted to old systems of politics, he learnt to adorn the new systems of science with the most beautiful color-

* Le Brun had the good fortune to have a poet for the editor of his works, M. Guingéné, who was a member of the Institute, well known for his taste and erudition, for many elegant literary and poetical productions, and an history of Italian literature, which is considered as a classical work. The memory of this accomplished and enlightened friend of liberty will ever be cherished by those who enjoyed the privilege of his society, and the fascinating powers of his conversation.

ing

ing of poetry. Even their rugged nomenclature becomes flexible to the will of the hand who possessed a peculiar power of bending the French language to his purpose, while he preserved all its grace and harmony.

Thus a new situation combined with the general progress of modern improvement and discovery to make Delille a greater poet, in spite of his political prejudices, and almost against his will. He would have been satisfied to look at what could be seen of nature by a poet's eye, through the narrow casements of a gothic castle; but he was borne down the torrent-stream of the Revolution, and his muse was forced to walk abroad amidst scenery of more extensive beauty and sublimer grandeur.

There belongs to Delille's character a moral excellence which cannot be passed unnoticed, and that was his stedfast adherence to his principles. He was called, in the eloquent language of M. de Chateaubriand, "*le courtisan de l'adversité*;" and he has been celebrated also for his unshaken fidelity by a young poet now no more, Charles Loyson*, who has joined with the name of Delille that of the venerable poet and patriot Ducis, the translator of Hamlet and Macbeth. Ducis braved far longer than Delille the power of Buonaparte; refused all his gifts, and honours, the red ribbon, and the place of senator, and acquired the title of the last of the Romans. The following are the lines of Charles Loyson:

" *Voyez-vous ce tyran ? la foule en vain l'encense,
De Ducis, de Delille, il entend la silence,
Qu'il soumette à ses loix l'Europe, et l'Univers,
De leur muse inflexible il n'aura pas un vers.*"

Those who have passed through the various phases of a revolution know how to appreciate the virtue of independence.†

We

* This young poet died not long since, of a consumption. His last composition, a farewell to life, is entitled "*Le Jeune Poète au Lit de Mort*," where he laments his untimely fate in a strain of beautifully plaintive verse. I shall transcribe a few of the stanzas.

" *Couvrez mon lit de fleurs, couronnez-en ma tête ;
Placez, placez ma lyre en mes tremblantes mains ;
Je salurai la mort par une hymne de fête ;
Vous, de mes derniers chants répéter les refrains.*

" *Mais quel trouble s'élève en mon âme affaiblie ?
Pourquoi tombent soudain ces transports généreux ?
Mes regards, malgré moi, se tournent vers la vie,
Et ma lyre ne rend que des sons douloureux.*

" *Malheureux que je suis ! je n'ai rien fait encore
Qui puisse du trépas sauver mon souvenir !
J'emporte dans la tombe un nom que l'on ignore,
Et tout entier la mort m'enlève à l'avenir !"*

† It must be acknowledged that the fine arts too often follow the impulsion of power. Of this the first exhibition of painting

at

We have thus far ventured to digress from our *poetical text* without fear of responsibility ; inasmuch as our task is rendered lighter by the circumstance, before mentioned, of many of the poems contained in this volume having previously made their appearance. These having come under our notice on their first publication, and requiring no farther comment, will leave us at liberty to attend to such as are wholly new ; which, though not equal, in many instances, to the earlier pieces, bear indisputable marks of poetical power of a very pleasing kind, if not, as we before observed, of the highest order. As a proof of this being the case, it will, perhaps, be sufficient to allege the fact, that one of Miss W.'s earlier effusions was really mistaken by the judicious biographer of Robert Burns for a song written by the Scottish poet, and actually published as such in the collection of his works.

Our readers may accept, as a specimen of these poems,

‘ THE TRAVELLERS IN HASTE ;

Addressed to T. Clarkson, Esq., in 1814, when many English arrived at Paris, but remained a very short time.

‘ Lov'd England ! now the narrow sea
In vain would sep'rate France and thee :
May fav'ring zephyrs swell the sail
That wafts the crowd my wishes hail !
Strangers to me, they hither roam,
But English accents speak of home ;
And Scotia, still more dear to me
Are those which lead me back to thee !
Accents that wake with magic powers
The spirits of departed hours ! —
Ah, lost to me thy fir-clad hills,
The music of thy mountain-rills, —
Yet ever shall the mem'ry last,
“ Pleasant and mournful ” of the past.
But here from scenes so new, so strange,
Where meditation long might range,
And taste might fix her ardent eye,
How swift the rapid travellers fly !

at the Louvre, after the Restoration, furnished a striking evidence. We had been accustomed to see nothing but battles on every canvas, and the figure of Napoleon ever in the foreground of the piece. But suddenly “ all pomp and circumstance of war ” disappeared ; the snows of Wagram stained with blood melted away ; the fields of Austerlitz and Jena sunk from the horizon ; and marshals, soldiers, cannon, precipices, camps, and broken bridges, were all swept into one common ruin. The walls were crowded with Madonas and processions, and not one single warrior fixed the eye but the good Henry the Fourth, always dear indeed to the French, and to whom they have never forgotten their allegiance.”

What

What haste to come, what haste to go,
 Unknowing half they wish to know;
 Delighted as they rush along,
 But not less eager to be gone.
 In vain the arts unfold their gates,
 For there no stranger ever waits;
 In vain unlock that wealth sublime
 Immortal genius wrests from time:—
 Ah, wherefore ope the classic book,
 For those who have no time to look?
 Who 'midst the academic bowers,
 On Breguet call to mark the hours;
 Through the long gall'ry swift advance,
 And judge perfection with a glance!
 But to what class does *he* belong
 Who comes less eager to be gone,
 And yet inflexibly refuses
 To heed the arts, or court the muses?
 The groups that press to give th' "Apollo"
 A parting glance he scorns to follow;
 In vain the "Venus" may expect
 One look, and wonder at neglect;
 For Clarkson slights all forms of beauty,—
 Not that he thinks indifference duty,
 But dearer pleasures fill the space
 Of classic charms, and attic grace:—
 He comes at this decisive hour
 In pity's cause, to plead with power;
 His embassy is from the slave,
 His diplomatic skill to save!
 He comes the fetter'd to unbind,
 To stipulate for half mankind;
 And when applause records his name,
 Sighs that philanthropy is fame.

We select one other example, of a different kind.

' HYMN, WRITTEN AMONG THE ALPS.

- ' Creation's God! with thought elate,
 Thy hand divine I see
 Impressed on scenes, where all is great,
 Where all is full of thee!
- ' Where stern the Alpine mountains raise
 Their heads of massive snow;
 When on the rolling storm I gaze,
 That hangs — how far below!
- ' Where on some bold, stupendous height,
 The eagle sits alone;
 Or, soaring, wings his sullen flight
 To haunts still more his own:

Where

- ' Where the sharp rock the chamois treads,
 Or slippery summit scales ;
 Or where the whitening snow-bird spreads
 Her plumes to icy gales :
- ' Where the rude cliff's steep column glows
 With morning's tint of blue ;
 Or evening on the glacier throws
 The rose's blushing hue :
- ' Or where by twilight's softer light,
 The mountain's shadow bends ;
 And sudden casts a partial night,
 As black its form descends :
- ' Where the full ray of noon alone
 Down the deep valley falls :
 Or where the sunbeam never shone
 Between its rifted walls :
- ' Where cloudless regions calm the soul,
 Bid mortal cares be still,
 Can passion's wayward wish controul,
 And rectify the will :
- ' Where midst some vast expanse the mind,
 Which swelling virtue fires,
 Forgets that earth it leaves behind,
 And to it's heaven aspires :
- ' Where far along the desert air
 Is heard no creature's call :
 And, undisturbing mortal ear,
 The avalanches fall :
- ' Where rushing from their snowy source,
 The daring torrents urge
 Their loud-toned waters' headlong course,
 And lift their feathered surge :
- ' Where swift the lines of light and shade
 Flit o'er the lucid lake :
 Or the shrill winds its breast invade,
 And its green billows wake :
- ' Where on the slope, with speckled dye
 The pigmy herds I scan :
 Or soothed, the scattered *Chalets* spy,
 The last abode of man :
- ' Or where the flocks refuse to pass,
 And the lone peasant mows,
 Fixed on his knees, the pendent grass,
 Which down the steep he throws :
- ' Where high the dangerous pathway leads
 Above the gulph profound,
 From whence the shrinking eye recedes,
 Nor finds repose around :

' Where

- ' Where red the mountain-ash reclines
Along the clefted rock ;
- Where firm the dark unbending pines
The howling tempests mock :
- ' Where, level with the ice-ribb'd bound,
The yellow harvests glow ;
Or vales with purple vines are crown'd
Beneath the impending snow :
- ' Where the rich min'rals catch the ray,
With varying lustre bright,
And glittering fragments strew the way
With sparks of liquid light :
- ' Or where the moss forbears to creep,
Where loftier summits rear
Their untrod snow, and frozen sleep
Locks all the uncolour'd year :
- ' In every scene, where every hour
Sheds some terrific grace,
In nature's vast o'erwhelming power,
Thee, Thee, my God, I trace !'

Several more pieces of a religious nature are inserted ; viz. another Hymn, and Paraphrases on Psalm lxxiv. 16, 17., on Isaiah, xlix. 15., on Matthew, vi. 4. and vii. 22. We observe also two or three feeling compositions addressed to the descendants of a deceased sister.

Perhaps, the poetic character of Miss W. is already too well known to receive much elucidation, or addition, from the accompanying specimens afforded by her later effusions ; which, whatever positive degree of merit they may possess, would suffer from a comparison with some of her earlier pieces. This, however, is a sort of parallel on which we feel the same reluctance to enter that we should experience in instituting an inquiry into the changes, varieties, and apparent inconsistencies of political opinion, in which this lady is said, of late years, to have involved herself. On this head, it will be enough to admit that, from the very singular and unexpected course of events in France, as great a diversity and opposition of sentiments must arise ; and Miss W. may have had reason at different times to express different views and expectations, by which she became undeservedly exposed to a certain degree of obloquy or suspicion. For ourselves, we can readily account for her enmity towards Bonaparte, without accusing her of tergiversation : — we can even forgive her for hailing the restoration, with the constitutional charter of *Louis le Désiré*, as a prospect of better things, until he proved a deceiver and an oppressor : — but we cannot so easily

account

account for, or reconcile to her known love of liberty, all her subsequent devotion to the Bourbon family. There is certainly something in the tone and character of 'A Narrative of Events, from the Landing of Bonaparte to the Restoration of Louis XVIII.,' which we do not quite approve: — we find not in it the same clearness, earnestness, and decision, or the same degree of honorable political avowal and sincerity, which distinguish some of her earlier writings.

ART. III. *The Son of Erin*; or, the Cause of the Greeks. A Play in five Acts. By a Native of Bengal, George Burges, A.M. Trin. Coll. Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 136. Miller. 1823.

ART. IV. *A Letter to the Rev. T. S. Hughes*, by Edmund Henry Barker, Esq. of Thetford, Norfolk, occasioned by the Perusal of his "Address to the People of England in the Cause of the Greeks." 8vo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Whittakers. 1823.

WE devote a single article to the two pamphlets of which the titles are here prefixed, on account of the identity of their subjects, and notwithstanding the wide difference in their mode of composition, as well as their having no other resemblance. In addition to the laudable object of awakening the public sympathy to the cause of the Greeks, Mr. Burges, a worshipper of the muses on the banks of the Ganges and of the Cam, has been inflamed with a still higher zeal, — that of reforming the drama; and 'The Son of Erin' is a specimen of the reformation which he proposes.

A narrow-minded critic might question the existence of the valuable quality called Modesty, in a writer who assumes with little ceremony 'the right to call himself the founder of a new school;' and who, in another place, 'professes that ineffable contempt, which every man who claims to be above the common herd does and must feel for the bigotry of custom.' We must do him the justice, however, to allow that he has amply established his claim to originality; and that he is so far from being the servile imitator of Sophocles, Euripides, Shakspeare, or Racine, that not a line in his play brings one of those great masters to our recollection: nor will his style be mistaken for that of any other author, living or dead. We might therefore, indeed, be not a little perplexed to account for the rejection of so fine a drama by the London managers, although we concur in the reason assigned for returning it, "its being above the intellect of the audience:" because this inconvenience might, we apprehend, have been obviated by dispersing among the audience the very same notes which Mr. B. has subjoined for the benefit of his readers. By this simple process,

process, the plot would, as Bayes says, "be insinuated into the boxes," and the rest of the auditory be enabled to guess at the writer's meaning. Of the assistance rendered by these annotations, our readers will hardly form an idea without an example. In the first act, the leader of the pirates, in answer to some compliments paid him by his comrades, observes that he could better thank them

— 'were his heart all tongue:

Then might I tell, what pleasure riots *here*,

To think that we, called outcasts by the world,' &c.

Mr. Burges has kindly told us, what the grammatical construction of the passage would never have suggested, that by *here* is meant the heart. If, however, any doubt can be entertained respecting the absolute necessity of these annotations, it will be right to observe that all Mr. B.'s jokes and puns would be wholly lost without them; and what can be a better contrivance than that by which he explains what no other being could possibly find out? In the following exquisite passage, two puns occur; of which the first is so intrinsically excellent as to be its own interpreter. One of the pirates is thus addressed by an Irishman:

'Mr. Pirate —

'*Counter.* Ex-pirate, by your leave, Mr. Paddy, as the time of our service is *ex-pired*. The Admiral, you see, has hoisted his yellow flag.'

The humour of this last allusion, which is too latent and unobtrusive to be brought to light without artificial means, is admirably explained by the note. 'A retired admiral is said to have hoisted the yellow flag; and, to understand the pun, Kalitza is supposed to have on a yellow dress.' Here we have two-fold information, viz. that which relates to the yellow flag, and the colour of the dress which it is requisite to wear, in order to understand and justify Mr. Burges's puns. Such, at least, is the grammatical meaning of the sentence.

We were at first rather puzzled to discover in what way the drama before us could be beneficial to the cause of the Greeks: but the difficulty soon vanished. Those who are hostile to this cause speak of the degraded state of the intellect of that people, and the universal ignorance which prevails among them: but Mr. B. refutes this error by giving his Greek pirates an almost universal knowledge. What vast conceptions must be formed of the attainments of that nation, when its outlaws and its robbers are enabled to understand *distringases* and the *sheriff's return to writs* in the English courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas! Talking of the

the profits of their concern, one of them remarks 'that it has been vested in not tangible securities, and that the answer to the distraining writ will be "*nulla bona*," or *no bonus* in a bad concern.' The personage, indeed, from whom this admirable piece of humour falls, we suppose from his name to be an Englishman: but it is to Greek auditors that it is addressed; and we may estimate the surprizing progress which the Greek intellect has recently made, when we observe a set of banditti on a rock in the Archipelago so well read as to understand Blackstone.

If, however, we were inclined to deplore the inconsiderate rejection of this great drama on the score of the unnumbered beauties which it contains, and of a kind "unattempted yet in prose or verse," we are almost inconsolable when we advert to the moral truths which are so profusely scattered over it; and which, with the aid of good acting, would have had so impressive and so salutary an effect on the frequenters of the theatre. Of these aphorisms, many are new discoveries in moral science. Who would have arrived, by his own unenlightened reason, at the important truth that a life of degradation communicates an improved *moral sense*, or a nicer perception of right and wrong, than the more regular and tranquil occupations of mankind?

— 'We, called outcasts by the world,
Have of the past, or good or evil deeds,
A keener sense than they whose moral tact
Is bruited by the vulgar prejudice,
Propped on prescriptive custom's rotten base.'

Female morality also, has not been neglected in the new dramatic school of which Mr. Burges is so justly vain of being the founder. That sensitive and shrinking modesty which, according to our northern opinions, diffuses over the faces of our fair countrywomen charms so exclusively their own, Mr. B. repudiates from his list of feminine attractions, and is in raptures with the 'sweet simplicity' of a young lady who invites a gentleman to repose on her bosom.

'Sweet simplicity!
How would the prudish daughters of the North
Shrink from such words and deeds and thoughts as thine.
But there society, like the soil, is
All cold and stiff. The flow'rs of land and life
Lack vigor, tint, and perfume; here and there
A plant of sweeter scent, of richer hue,
Of more luxuriant leaf, is seen to live,
And only does not wither, and thus shows
Itself the exotic seed of warmer climes.'

34 *Burges's Son 'of Erin. — Barker's Letter to Hughes.*

It is another aphorism in the female morality of this piece, that a woman is to *speak* out as she feels, and not to wait till the proposal comes from the other sex :

' Were man as left by nature, he would hear,
Nor woman blush to speak, from lips now closed,
By formal cold unfeeling custom, sounds
To thrill his heart and save it from th' embrace
Of insincerity. But now, a fair one shows,
Uncheck'd, affection tend'rest for a dog,
Endear'd by acts of tried fidelity,
— A virtue from man's calendar of deeds,
I grant, erased — yet must she meet the eye
Of scorn from her own sex, and by hell-hounds,
In form of man, for ever on the slip
To pounce on unsuspecting innocence,
Be deem'd fit prey, should she with guileless heart
Feel, and say first, "Thou art my love, my life."

Lost in this labyrinth of poetic and moral beauty, we have yet said nothing of the plot: but, indeed, the play is so ingeniously constructed that it has *no* plot; the author having, by means of his new dramatic principles, disencumbered himself of that which has generally been the first solicitude of dramatic writers, the construction of a regular fable by means of a series of events, all tending to one dramatic purpose. In this respect he has been true to his own philosophical definition of a drama; which excludes all plot or fable, and which we must use his own words to convey to our readers. 'The drama is a representation of thoughts, words, and deeds, felt, spoken, and done by one set of human beings, who assume the appearance of another set for such a length of time as the supposed events would demand for their exhibition in reality.' (Preface, p. ix.) After so luminous a definition, we need not ask with Schlegel, "What is the drama?" Mr. Burges, however, has omitted, in his enumeration of dramatic requisites, one which is strikingly exemplified in his own play; we mean, the communication of rare and recondite pieces of knowledge. Thus, for instance, we learn that the calling of the pirates, in addition to that of plundering the surface of the sea, is that of diving for and bringing up the treasures beneath it. When Gerall discovers himself, he exclaims,

' In me the pirates' leader, Gerall, view,
Whose daring crew hath made these seas *disgarge*
Her richest treasure.'

Again. The vulgar admirers of female beauty will be somewhat surprized, when they learn that a lady's hand and arm should be streaked with many colours:

— ' Her

— ' Her arms
Streaked with the varied hues of Flora's pride,
Rose, lily, hyacinth, from blood, skin, vein, &c. &c.

We must not cull any more blossoms from this wilderness of sweets, for our limits admonish us to desist from so fascinating an occupation. Mr. Burges, we trust, will be encouraged by the success of his drama to *out-do* Shakspeare, Fletcher, and Otway; not indeed by soaring above them, but by winging a downward and not less daring flight, far beyond the vulgar boundaries of sense and nature, into the illimitable regions of absurdity.

Mr. Barker is a zealous champion for the Greeks, but the plan of his publication renders it an unfit subject of critical notice. It may be intitled *Tractatus de Græcis rebus et quibusdam aliis*; for it is a most motley though well-intended collection from tracts, news-papers, and sermons, of all that has been said on the affairs of Greece, and something more. The author's name, indeed, appears in the title-page, but he is in fact only an editor. The Courier, the Times, the Norwich and Bury Post, the Sheffield Iris, the greater part of Lord Chatham's speech in the House of Lords on the American war, Smollett's History of England, Curran's speech for Hamilton Rowan, Sheridan's Thoughts on the Greek Revolution, Seed's Sermons, and a long list of et cætera, not to forget several extensive and eloquent passages from a tract lately published by Mr. Hall of Leicester, one of the most ardent advocates of Greece, and one of the best writers of the day; — these constitute the work. We need not, therefore, apologize for not entering into a regular review of such a compilation; contenting ourselves with citing the admirable peroration of Mr. Hall's pamphlet, intitled *Sentiments proper to the present Crisis*.

' Go then, ye defenders of your country, accompanied with every auspicious omen; advance with alacrity into the field, where God himself musters the hosts to war. Religion is too much interested in your success, not to lend you her aid; she will shed over this enterprise her selected influence. While you are engaged in the field, many will repair to the closet, many to the sanctuary; the faithful of every name will employ that prayer, which has power with God; the feeble hands, which are unequal to any other weapon, will grasp the sword of the spirit; and from myriads of humble, contrite hearts, the voice of intercession, supplication, and weeping, will mingle in its ascent to Heaven with the shouts of battle, and the shock of arms. And thou, sole Ruler among the children of men, to whom the shields of the earth belong, gird on thy sword, thou most Mighty! go forth with

their hosts in the day of battle! Impart in addition to their hereditary valour, that confidence of success, which springs from thy presence! Pour into their hearts the spirit of their departed heroes! Inspire them with thine own; and while led by thy hand, and fighting under thy banners, open thou their eyes to behold in every valley and in every plain, what the prophet beheld by the same illumination — chariots of fire, and horses of fire! *Then shall the strong man be as tow, and the maker of it as a spark; and they shall both burn together, and none shall quench them.*"

Ann. V. Journey from Riga to the Crimea, by Way of Kiev; with some Account of the Colonization, and the Manners and Customs of the Colonists of New Russia. To which are added, Notes relating to the Crim Tatars. By Mary Holderness. 8vo. pp. 318. 10s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1823.

IN consequence of some patronage offered by the Emperor of Russia, the son of the late Mr. Arthur Young, formerly secretary to the Board of Agriculture, undertook to conduct a colony of English farmers into the Crimea, in order there to introduce the more improved methods of British agriculture. Among the companions of his enterprize, we have been informed, were the family of Holderness; the *lady-president* of which has here undertaken to relate her journey, with the observations made during her stay on the local phænomena and the inhabitants of the district. She carefully abstains from any matter connected with the fate and fortunes of the colony, but records, with unaffected propriety and interesting minuteness, the events which occurred to her knowledge in this unfrequented district. She is apparently an accomplished woman and vigilant observer; and she exhibits a patient tolerance of difficulty which is highly to the honor of her temper and resolution. It was especially at the village of Karagoss in the Crimea that she resided habitually from the year 1816 to 1820; and, in a most unassuming and familiar manner, she paints the present state of a country which, under the Greeks formerly, and more recently under the Genoese, had attained a high degree of populousness and commercial importance: but which, beneath the barbarizing sway of Russia, is wildering into a desert, and only supplies pasturage to roving hordes of Tatars.

In the first chapter is recorded the arrival of the writer at Bolderää, which is the port of Riga, and about nine miles lower down the river: but a bar situated there prevents large vessels from ascending higher. A floating bridge, 2600 feet in length and 40 feet in breadth, is annually stretched across the Dvina at the thaw of the waters, and taken up in the winter,

winter, when the ice serves as a substitute. Riga once counted forty thousand inhabitants, but has decreased an entire fourth, from the capricious policy of government in taxing its imports.

The second chapter describes the method of travelling in Russia, the equipages, post-houses, inns, accommodations, and the appearance of the people. Kreitzburg is the most important place which presents itself on the way. Coloured engravings illustrate the costume of the boors: whose common drink is *kvass*, or a sort of cider made by fermenting the juice of plumbs. In the next chapter we find the description of a night at Trepenhoff, which we shall copy as characteristic of Russian inns, manners, and filth.

' At Trepenhoff we were obliged to wait all night, for want of horses, and here passed a most unusual scene. One room alone was to be had for our party, and the bedding was laid upon some hay on the floor, excepting one bedstead, which I and my baby occupied: the rest of the party were laid down to sleep, when they brought in a broad long form, upon which a soldier's cloak and a pillow were placed: I had put on my night-cap (the only change of course made in my dress), and was going to lie down, when, to my surprise, a young officer walked in, and very quietly took his station on the wooden bench, which his cloak and pillow had converted into a couch for that night's repose. For some time I sat musing with astonishment, and doubtful whether, with this addition to our party, I could prevail upon myself to rest; but fatigue pleaded with a rhetoric I could not withstand, and I soon followed the example which had been given me. Since then I have been so accustomed to the same scene, that I could now lie down and sleep very quietly, with the addition of half-a-dozen, or more to our party.

' It would be in vain to attempt giving a description of the misery and dirt in which the people live; they all lie down to sleep in their clothes, taking off only the upper garment, and throwing over them either a sheep-skin shube, or pelisse, or a cotton-quilted coverlid: they swarm with every sort of vermin, the natural consequence of want of cleanliness in themselves, their clothes, and their houses. Unhappily for those of the English who travel on the Continent, they are so used to all the comforts of cleanliness and decency, that it is impossible not to feel extreme disgust and abhorrence at this barbarous race of beings, who in all respects live more like herds of swine, than like rational creatures: In the houses of the Jews, in particular, they live together in swarms like bees, though not like them for the purposes of industry; their little dirty children run about the house almost naked, or with only one garment on, a large long shirt; the children and the servants seldom wear stockings, and with the little idea they have of cleanliness in their houses, it is not likely that they can walk about their filthy clay-floors with feet unsoiled.

The want of horses detained us here throughout the following day also; and we were advised to remain there another night, as many robberies had been committed by deserters from the army, who had secreted themselves in the woods, and had intercepted several passengers. Our party, however, being so numerous, the gentlemen took the precaution of going well armed, and prepared for defence, and we set out from Trépenhoff about nine in the evening. We reached the following station without being molested, and taking coffee, proceeded to Dünabourg, where we arrived about nine in the morning.

The country through which we have travelled from Riga hither is most of it extremely wild, and many parts beautiful and romantic. Immense forests bounded our road on either side, and we have journeyed fifty or a hundred versts together through avenues of trees, principally the fir, the birch, and the lime: the route lay nearly along the course of the Dvina, which we had twice to cross, and which frequently presented itself to view in some very delightful landscape: the soil, however, is barren, and its inhabitants but thinly scattered, so that scarce any signs of cultivation are seen.

The peasants hang their bee-hives in the woods, that the bees may have the first flowers of the lime, whence they make very fine honey. The bark of the lime, or linden-tree, is manufactured into several different things: I have already mentioned the peasants' shoes; ropes are made of it, and it is used in making their sledges: there are eight or ten more purposes to which it is applied, insomuch that the owners of forest-wood complain exceedingly of the depredations committed by the peasants in stealing the bark and injuring the trees.

Mrs. H. and her family continued to ascend the Dvina by the road along its banks to Dünabourg, now only the remains of a once populous town; seven hundred houses having been pulled down in 1810 to make a fortification, which the French destroyed in their route to Moscow.—Chap. iv. depicts Besan-kovitch, the residence of Count Creptovitch, a travelled and accomplished nobleman, who received our colonists with hospitality. The portion of civilization that is to be found in Russia is wholly immured in the palaces of the nobility.—Homil, the residence of Count Romanzoff, is described in the next chapter; and here again is one of those imitations of an English gentleman's luxury, which is doomed "to waste its fragrance on the desert air." This house is not surrounded by a park, or even a garden, but, like a conservatory in January, admits the visitor at once from a wilderness of snow into a tropical island,—from bleak exposure into a fairy palace. The Russians accustom their children frequently to use the warm-bath, and infuse the leaves of fragrant herbs into the tepid water.—After having pursued the course of the Dvina
into

into the government of Smolensko, the fair author crosses near Tchernigoff an intervening ridge of high land, and descends into the valley of the Dnieper; the course of which river she, henceforth follows, down to Kiev first, and thence to the Black Sea.

Kiev occupies the whole sixth chapter, and merits this distinction. It is admirably situated, on a bold and rocky eminence, bathed by a broad river navigable from the Euxine; is defended by the castle, and decorated by the monastery of Pestcherskey; is provided with an arsenal, and is approached through barrier-gates. It was once the metropolis of Russia, and is better adapted by geographical position for that honor than either Moscow or Petersburg, which now enjoy alternately the advantage of the imperial presence. Kiev contains about twenty-five thousand inhabitants; who are supplied during an annual fair, called the Contract, with the collective luxuries of Asia and Europe. Should the czars ever resume the habit of dwelling on this spot, a great spur would be given to commercial and agricultural industry, in a province much more adapted by climate for the rapid production of the wants of life, than those regions in which hitherto an artificial population has been convened to simulate the magnificence without the comforts of civilization, and to mimic the discipline without possessing the accommodations of government. In the ninth century, Kiev is said to have contained 400 churches: but superstition and despotism have progressively checked its growth, and reduced it to its present state of mortifying decay. How strange that a spirit of territorial aggrandizement should be affected by a nation, which would double its strength by parrowing its basis; and which might become a formidable power by condensing its scattered population on the northern coast of the Euxine, where so many vast rivers communicate with the interior.

Chapter vii. conducts the reader to Human, Tulchin, Balta, and, finally, to Odessa; which is, or recently was, under the Duke of Richelieu, a flourishing place of about thirty years' growth. Some privileges were granted to its port, on the faith of which several Greek merchants built costly establishments: but these privileges, with an immoral and prejudicial contempt for public contracts, have lately been rescinded, or suspended; and Odessa perhaps will yet be added to the long list of Russian cities in ruin. Are such melancholy monuments the only trophies of autocracy?

In the concluding chapter of her tour, Mrs. H. visits Nicolayeff, Cherson, Bereslaff, the salt lakes of Perekop, Sympheropol, the Tatar town of Karasubazar, and finally

arrives at her destination in Karagoos. An appendix gives some additional particulars of Nicolayeff and Odessa, which were first observed in returning.

To this curious, unusual, and to the reader agreeable tome, succeeds a statistical account of the colonies of New Russia; which is divided into twenty-four sections, and treats instructively of the colonization of the Taurida, of the Odessa colony, of the general system of government, and of the pernicious power granted to the officers of the government. We extract a passage.

"The salary affixed to the office of Espravnek is 250 rubles per annum; which, it has been confidently said, that he is able to stretch to 10,000. Whether it be really the case, that he is gifted with the touch of Midas to such an extent, I have not authority enough to vouch for; but it is an undoubted fact, that his nominal income is very much below what he really receives, and that all above the sum allowed by government is extorted from the Tatars, or received by way of present, which the donors in most cases are compelled to make, to avoid worse consequences.

They have an old proverb, which will speak for them better than I can — it is this: "*Nebo Vicokie, ah Gocydar dalokie*;" or, "Heaven is high, and the Emperor is a long way off." Yet the portrait of his imperial Majesty is set up in all their law-offices, and all heads are uncovered with the greatest reverence to the picture, and an outward demeanour kept up, as though he were indeed present to behold them; they, however, tenaciously remember, "*Gocydar dalokie*!" This corruption, as may be reasonably expected, defeats its own purpose; and the man who might possibly remain for years undisturbed in the same office, is quickly removed, with the hope of obtaining in another a better and more faithful servant. The causes which contribute to this depravity are several; but chiefly the very low salaries which, in the civil service especially, are awarded to the servants of the crown; and, according to their own proverb, its distance from the seat of government makes corruption and fraud more easy. Another cause of this monstrous depravity is eminently owing to the total neglect of every species of education amongst the Russians; for this description of people positively know nothing more of it than how to hold a pen, or how to copy or scribble voluminous reports, and other documents of their numerous tribunals.

In the Crimea, a commission exists for examining the titles of disputed lands, which seems to grant away the pasturages of the Tatars, and even the persons of the cattle-keepers, with very little ceremony. — A view of Theodocia, or Kaffa, as the Tatars call it, is inserted in this volume: it is said to have contained in the time of the Genoese 36,000 houses: but in 1820 Mrs. H. estimated the entire population (p. 137.)

at only five thousand inhabitants. Dr. Clarke, through some error in his manuscript notes, talks of fifty families only.

The Nogay Tatars and the Greek colonists are severally described and depicted; next the German colonists, and the frugal industrious Bulgarians: but none of these races seem to thrive, since the vastness of the estates, and the feudal tenure of all the landed property, oppose a fatal obstacle to any lasting amelioration. Until the soil be rendered freehold, and a great subdivision of proprietorships be accomplished, no farmer's family can have a real interest in bettering its condition. Will the vassal expend his savings, or employ his industry, about the houses and grounds of his lord? — Here a new sort of ghost-story is introduced:

‘It is recorded, and believed by all denominations of the superstitious inhabitants of the Crimea, that this quality (hospitality) was the means of preserving a whole village from the dreadful visitation of the plague during the years 1812 and 1813. The belief of the *personification of evil* is rarely found, though we read of it in all the eastern tales. The story is as follows: Near midnight a stranger knocked, and obtained admittance, at the cottage of one of these villagers; he begged for food and drink, both of which were freely given to him, and his stay for the remainder of the night pressed; but having refreshed himself, he got up to depart, and thanking them for their reception of him, assured them he would amply repay it. “I am,” said he, “THE PLAGUE, and during the scourge with which I am come to visit this country, your village shall remain unhurt and untouched amidst surrounding devastation.” The promise was fulfilled, and the village escaped the infection, which spread with horrid rapidity around.’

On the eve of her departure, Mrs. Holderness thus sums up her observations:

‘From what has been premised, it will readily be seen, that the routine of a country life amidst such a primitive race as the Tatars, though it was occasionally enlivened by visits to the towns, or neighbouring proprietors, or made interesting by the means of serving our poorer neighbours, yet could have little of anecdote, while it afforded much of observation, and abundance of employment.

‘The moral character of the peasantry of the Crimea is exceedingly depraved and vicious; and, excepting the Tatars, I never found it possible, by any good offices or kindness, to excite any attachment in them, that the sight of a glass of brandy would not instantly surmount; and amongst the servants we have had, from nearly every nation, there, a gross immorality and inveterate love of drunkenness were almost invariably the leading traits.

‘The different modes by which they manifested their regret at the time of my leaving Karagoss were thus evinced: my Tatar neighbour

neighbours were with me throughout the day previous to my departure, either sitting silent in my room, or assisting in the arrangement for the journey; but on the day of my departure few could see me; and when the children went to bid good-bye to the women, they found them shut up, and really grieving. My two servants, one a Polè, the other a German, busily and attentively assisted me throughout the preceding day; but when their duty was done, they took care to drown their sorrow in large libations of wine and brandy, which they had previously promised me they would not do. On the morning of my departure, they felt still more strongly the necessity of repeating that, which the preceding night had produced exhilaration; and I fear, if not the ostensible, I was at least the nominal cause of a repetition of the same offence the following evening: and well was it if the evil stopped here.

'I conclude with noticing, that on being seated in the carriage, and ready to depart, I was presented by the Polish woman with a small loaf of bread and some cheese, which she had sent to the market-town to purchase for me; she gave it with a particular injunction, that I should *eat it myself, and then I should not want bread upon the road.* That I did not feel this want, however, I certainly owed to a more powerful charm than her little loaf, though I received it with a ready promise to purchase my good fortune by so accommodating a price.'

A second edition follows of the writer's Notes on the Crim Tatars; in which various instructive particulars are given respecting the marriages, feasts, cookery, and habits of the various classes of the people; their superstitions, funerals, punishments, and diseases; their farming, gardening, utensils, plants, and animals. The buffalo is thus characterized:

'There are some few camels in the Crimea, and many buffaloes. These latter are, of all domestic animals, the most disagreeable and difficult to use, being totally unable to bear extremes of temperature. In hot weather they become altogether unmanageable, and towards noon will desert their work, running furiously into the first water, to refresh themselves by rolling in the mud. When this fit takes them, they will frequently run with a loaded waggon into the sea. In winter they are almost equally troublesome, since they require to be kept so warm, that huts must be made for them below the surface of the ground. They are extremely destructive among trees, constantly breaking off all the lower branches. The female gives a profusion of milk, which is said to contain a large proportion of cream; but the butter is white, and not so well flavoured as that of the cow. The skin of the buffalo is very valuable, and the Tatars make traces of it wherewith to draw their ploughs and waggons. The strength of these may be estimated, from their power of sustaining the draught of seven pairs of oxen, in ploughing a stiff clay.'

It is pleasing to observe how well our English ladies travel, in a literary point of view; and how quick and detailed are their

their observations on all that passes around them. These female pilgrims of civilization catch exquisitely the present features of nature and society; and they have the art of alluring in conversation every variety of information, which it would be reckoned dangerous or trifling to communicate to men. We therefore exhort those of our countrywomen, who have the opportunity of visiting foreign nations, to be less reluctant in publishing their remarks.

ART. VI. *View of the past and present State of the Island of Jamaica; with Remarks on the Moral and Physical Condition of the Slaves, and on the Abolition of Slavery in the Colonies.* By J. Stewart, late of Jamaica. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

THE appearance of this volume, from the pen of an individual who has long resided in the largest of our West Indian islands, has induced us to resume the very important subject to which our attention was lately drawn by the publications of Mr. Wilberforce and Mr. Macaulay. In the pages which we devoted to the two excellent pamphlets of those gentlemen, (Number for June last,) we endeavored to present a concise view of the state of slavery in our colonies; and to shew that the enormous abuses, generated by that system, imperiously called for a remedy. We did not offer any observations on the subject of compensation to the planters, in the supposed case of a complete emancipation of the slaves, because it was a question to which neither of the writers under review had applied themselves; nor did we enter into an examination of the various methods which have been proposed for the accomplishment of an ultimate emancipation: — our object was to prove the necessity existing for a change in the system, and the safety with which that change might be wrought. On the present occasion, however, we shall inquire into the *vested rights* of the planters, with their claims to compensation; and we shall examine the practicability, in which we shall be materially assisted by the details and observations of Mr. Stewart, of some of the modes proposed for accomplishing the complete removal of this most disgraceful stain on our national character.

In considering the question of the continuance of slavery, with reference only to the master and the slave, there cannot be a doubt that, according to every law of religion, morality, humanity, and justice, the latter is immediately, without stay or hinderance of any kind, intitled to a full, unconditional, and absolute emancipation. The colonists tell us, indeed, that,

that, "however invidious it may be, they explicitly and openly avow and claim their right of property in their slaves, as well as in the lands which they cultivate *:" but, with equal explicitness and openness, might the celebrated Turpin have avowed and claimed his right of property in the horse which he rode and the watch which he wore, though both the one and the other were acquired by force on Hounslow-heath. The colonists claim a right of property in that in which no property can possibly reside. † Did the matter rest here, we should say to the planters, "Yours has been the guilt, and yours must be the reward of guilt; you have bought your brothers' blood, and you must pay for it with your own ruin:" but, in the present state of things, a sentence like this would be grossly unjust. The nefarious man-traffic was long supported by our laws, and the existence of slavery is still recognized by them: the colonists have acted and still act under the sanction of the laws; and to them, therefore, they properly appeal for protection. The country at large has indeed been a *particeps criminis* in the offence, and therefore must bear its portion of the burden. The legislature cannot say to the slave-owner, "It is true we told you that you might kidnap the Negro, and might work and lash him: but we have changed our opinion: it is illegal, and you must suffer the loss!" We grant, then, that the colonist is intitled to a compensation: but, as no claim to compensation can arise without a previous loss, let us see what would be the damage sustained by the slave-owner if his Negroes should be emancipated.

The value of a slave consists solely in his labor; for in his mere blood and bones and sinews, without their being put in action, his master can have no possible interest. If it can be proved, then, that the labor performed by a Negro, when a slave, would be procured from him at a less expence if he were free, it is evident that his owner would be benefited by the change, and that not the shadow of a right to compensation would exist. The value of the slave would in that case be added to the value of the land. Thus, if a plantation in

* See "Further Proceedings of the Honorable House of Assembly of Jamaica relative to a Bill introduced into the House of Commons," (the Slave-Registry Bill,) 1816, p. 37.

† The overwhelming power of self-interest in warping the judgment and feelings is almost inconceivable. In the proceedings of the House of Assembly, cited in the above note, amongst other arguments of the Committee in support of the abstract doctrine of slavery, we are told that "In 1 Cor. c. vii. v. 21. and 24. St. Paul makes it perfectly immaterial whether a man is bond or free."

itself worth 10,000*l.* at present be cultivated by slaves who cost 5000*l.*, it will be worth 15,000*l.* when the purchaser is not compelled to lay out 5000*l.* In order to procure laborers. Arguing on the acknowledged operation of human feelings, there cannot be a simpler proposition than that voluntary labor must always be more productive than that which is compulsory; — a truth that rests on the principle of self-interest, which is a principle that the West Indian planters ought to know how to appreciate. If we may be told that this is a theory, true in the abstract but false in practice, then let the question be examined by the strong test of fact and experience. The experiment has been repeatedly tried; and the result has been found favorable to the interests of humanity.*

“A few Polish nobles,” says Mr. Coxe in his *Travels in Poland*, “have ventured upon the expedient of giving liberty to their vassals. The event has shewn this to be no less judicious than humane, no less friendly to their own interests than to the happiness of the peasants; for it appears that in the districts in which the new arrangement has been introduced, the population of their villages has been considerably increased, and the revenues of their estates augmented in a triple proportion. The first noble who granted freedom to his peasants was Zamoiski, formerly Great Chancellor, who in 1761 enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia. In 1777 the receipts of this particular district were nearly triple, and Zamoiski, pleased with the thriving state of the six villages, has enfranchised the peasants of all his estates.”

In the Brazils, also, a system of voluntary labor has been adopted in working for gold and jewels.

“The master supplies the slave daily with a certain quantity of provisions and tools, and the slave is obliged to return a certain quantity of gold or jewels according to the nature of the ground. Every thing that remains over this ration the Negro keeps himself, were the balance to be millions. The gold-mines of Popayan and Choco in Spanish America are wrought in the very same way. The finest pearl-fisheries in South America, those of Panama for example, are in the hands of Negro tenants, as it were. These are bound to give a certain number of pearls every week. The Negroes in the towns are allowed to hire themselves out to services of different kinds, on condition of their returning to their masters a certain portion of their wages; the rest they may spend or hoard up for their own use.” (*Brougham on Colonial Policy*.)

* Much valuable information on this subject is collected in a short but able pamphlet, intitled “A Letter to M. Jean Baptiste Say on the comparative Expence of Free and Slave Labour. By Adam Hodgson. Hatchard and Son. 1823:” — and to this letter we are indebted for many of the details which we have given on the point in question.

The

The most convincing proof, however, of the superiority of *free over slave* labor is to be found in the experiments made by Mr. Steele in the island of Barbadoes.* This gentleman in the year 1780, at a very advanced period of life, visited his estates in the West Indies, for the laudable purpose of improving the condition of his Negroes: with which view, and as one means of accomplishing this desired end, he resolved to try whether he could not carry on the plantation-work through the stimulus of reward.

"He offered two-pence halfpenny (currency, or about three-halfpence sterling;) per day, with the usual allowance to holer † of a dram with molasses to any twenty-five of his Negroes, both men and women, who would undertake to hole for canes an acre per day, at about 96½ holes for each Negro to the acre. The whole gang were ready to undertake it, but only fifty of the volunteers were accepted, and many amongst them were those who upon much lighter occasions had usually pleaded infirmity and inability; but the ground having been moist, they holed twelve acres within six days, with great ease, having an hour, more or less, every evening to spare, and the like experiment was repeated with the like success. More experiments with such premiums on weeding and deep hoeing were made by task-work per acre, and all succeeded in like manner, their premiums being all punctually paid them in proportion to their performance. But afterwards some of the same people being put, *without premium*, to weed on a loose cultivated soil in the common manner, *eighteen* Negroes did not do as much in a given time, as *six* had performed of the like sort of work a few days before with the premium of two-pence halfpenny."

At length, Mr. Steele established a regular system of wages, calculated with a reference to the peculiar situation of the master and the laborer; and the result of these meritorious changes was such as we might expect: "in little better than four years, the annual net clearance of his property was more than tripled." This was only one consequence of the wise and benevolent policy of Mr. Steele; for he abolished all arbitrary punishments, introduced a sort of Negro magistracy on his estate, and by treating his slaves as rational creatures he rendered them a valuable and happy community.

* An account of Mr. Steele's proceedings is contained in a volume published by Dr. Dickson, intitled "Mitigation of Slavery, by Steele and Dickson." Some copious details from this work may be found in Mr. Clarkson's "Thoughts on the Necessity of improving the Condition of the Slaves in the British Colonies," originally published in the "Inquirer."

† *Holing*, or preparing the holes for the canes, is one of the most laborious tasks which the Negroes have to perform.

A strong

A strong argument to prove the expensive nature of slave-labor is to be found in the fact that, where the price of free-labor is low, slave-labor is readily abandoned. It is well known that a low price of produce and a reduced value of labor preceded the extinction of slavery in the northern parts of the United States; and the slave-owner no doubt more readily acquiesced in the abolition, from a comparison of the relative value of free and slave-labor, into which a depression of prices compelled him to enter.*

If, notwithstanding the many convincing proofs which exist that our West Indian colonists, instead of being injured, would be benefited by the emancipation of their slaves, they should still insist on a compensation before any effectual measures are taken towards a complete abolition of slavery, let the legislature guarantee that compensation on proof of the losses sustained. To the plan mentioned by Mr. Stewart, viz. that government shall pay to the owner of every slave his full value on his manumission, we most decidedly object, for it would in fact be paying the slave-owners for their prejudices. There is, however, another mode of overcoming this difficulty, to which we shall soon advert; and which, while it would satisfy the demands of the colonists, would exonerate the country from all chance of burden, and prove at the same time of great utility in meliorating the habits of the slaves. We refer to the practicability of enabling the Negroes to purchase their own freedom.—With these ideas on a question, which, after all, furnishes the real objection to any alteration in the slave-system, we cannot but view the apprehensions of Mr. Stewart on this subject as misplaced and unnecessary.

* With respect to the policy of the measure in a national point of view, it may be reduced to the very momentous questions—first, whether in such an event the mother-country would be in a condition to pay nearly one hundred millions of money to her subjects whose capitals are embarked in West India property under the guarantee of British laws, for the loss of that property? which she would be as much bound in honor and good faith to do, if she gave freedom to the slaves, as to keep faith with the national creditors; and, secondly, whether she could afford to suffer a defalcation in her revenue of five millions and a half derived from her colonial commerce—the loss of a market for her manufactures to

* Some acute remarks on this subject may be found in "A Letter addressed to the Liverpool Society for promoting the Abolition of Slavery, on the injurious Effects of high Prices of Produce, and the beneficial Effects of low Prices upon the Condition of Slaves. By James Cropper." Hatchard and Son. 1823.

the amount of more than three millions and a half per annum — a great nursery for her seamen, and employment for a considerable portion of her shipping. It is easy to speculate on such a subject, but theory and practice are very different. The warmest rational friends of humanity would hardly advocate a measure fraught with so much evil on one side, without being likely on the other to be attended by the good contemplated.' (P. 248.)

Having dismissed what we may call the mercantile part of our speculations, in which we have been compelled to weigh gold against blood, — or the interest of the slave-owner against the agony of the slave, — we shall now examine the most feasible plans which have been proposed for the ultimate total extinction of the slave-system. It has been remarked to be one of the most odious characteristics of slavery, that its degrading influence gradually renders the beings who are exposed to it unfit for the enjoyment of freedom. This observation is certainly true, and has with propriety been applied to the slave-population of our West Indian islands: — but nothing, at the same time, can more clearly demonstrate the necessity of some prompt and judicious measures to counter-vail so monstrous an evil. In our Review for June last, we enumerated the principal grievances which loudly called for redress, and the removal of which ought in fact to be the first step towards reformation. We there stigmatized the use of the lash as brutalizing and horrible; and we are consequently glad to find from Mr. Stewart that this execrable punishment has in many instances fallen into discredit: whence, we hope, we may infer that the planters would not be unwilling that it should be prohibited altogether by an enactment of the legislature.

'The continuance of that long-standing opprobrium of the West Indies, the cart-whip as an instrument of punishment, has been condemned by every enlightened colonial proprietor, and no voice is now raised to defend it. In Jamaica the use of it is fast wearing away. On many plantations it has been abolished for many years past, and some less revolting instrument of correction adopted in its place.* However averse a proprietor may be to the too free use of the whip, abuses will prevail, while it is suffered to be used at all; even an overseer cannot, if he were

* There is something ludicrously shocking in the benevolence of an opulent proprietor, who, as Mr. Stewart informs us, has philanthropically 'adopted the cat-o-nine tails as a substitute for the whip.' — 'Others,' he continues, 'conceive the twigs of the lance-wood tree (resembling the birch used in schools) to be a still less harsh instrument of correction.' What must that system be, in which a cat-o-nine tails is the symbol of mildness?

so disposed, effectually control the unjust and arbitrary exercise of it by the drivers, who are too generally hard-hearted and partial in the distribution of the minor punishments they are authorised to inflict. — It is absurd to suppose that the whip is necessary to maintain obedience and subordination among the slaves. Experience has shewn that this is a groundless pretence. Some years ago, a gentleman who had the management of a sugar-plantation, on which were three hundred slaves, tried the effect of interdicting the use of the whip upon it. So wedded were the neighbours to the use of it, that this proceeding was denounced as a silly and dangerous experiment, inevitably leading to insubordination among the slaves, and the ruin of the property. The reverse of these presages was however the result; the slaves were orderly, obedient, and grateful for this act of lenity; they performed their labour with cheerfulness and alacrity, and the crops were increased far beyond their former average-amount. (P. 346.)

The same experiment was made by Mr. Steele in Barbadoes, with similar success. He took the whips from the hands of his overseers, and appointed a court or jury of the elder Negroes for the trial of casual offences. This court soon grew respectable, and Mr. Steele had every reason to rejoice at the measures which he had adopted. Facts like these furnish unanswerable proofs of the utility and safety of abolishing the flogging and driving system, which might properly form the first step towards a regeneration of the slaves.

Working too much, or the over-labouring of the Negroes, is the next grievance which deserves consideration. According to the present law, (as we formerly stated,) only one day in each fortnight (and not even that during the time of crop, which lasts about five months of the year,) is allowed to the Negroes by law for the cultivation of their little gardens; and their Sundays are their only market-days. Now it appears from a mass of evidence which has been brought forwards, that, were the labor of the slaves voluntary, or were an interest in the result of their task afforded them, the quantity of labor which they now perform with difficulty under the operation and pain of the lash would be accomplished in a much shorter space; and if the time, which would thus be gained, were left at the disposal of the slaves, that alone would be a sufficient incentive to exertion. The wise benevolence of Mr. Steele induced him to allow his Negroes, in addition to their wages, 48 days in the year, besides Sundays, for their own employments; — and how well this plan succeeded we have already mentioned. When opportunities and inducements are given to them, the Africans are by no means an indolent race; and, even under all the disadvantages with which they at present contend,

many instances have occurred of their having accumulated a very considerable *peculium*. Every encouragement, then, should be extended to their industrious endeavors; and, with this view, they should be rendered capable by law of acquiring and holding property: but the inducement to exertion would be carried to its highest pitch, were the slave allowed by law to purchase his manumission at an easy rate. For this purpose, a provision should be made by the legislature for ascertaining the value of any slave who might be desirous and capable of buying his freedom, which he should be permitted to effect, perhaps, at a price somewhat below the valuation: but, at present, great difficulties exist in the way of a Negro who, by his good conduct and frugality, has realized the means of emancipation. Mr. Cooper, the clergyman whose name was frequently mentioned in our former article, knew three valuable Negroes who wished to purchase their freedom. "They had long applied in vain to the agents of the proprietor resident on the spot. They at length, however, obtained their end by an application to the proprietor himself, then in England. After this a fourth made many efforts to obtain his freedom by purchase, but they proved unavailing; and he sunk in consequence into a state of despondency, and became comparatively of little value." *

If the opportunities of increasing their *peculium*, which the extra-allowance of time would afford them, were added to the facilities in the purchase of their freedom, we have every reason to believe that the Negroes would eagerly snatch at the hopes thus held out to them, and that a gradual abolition of slavery might even in this mode be effected. The measure would likewise be highly advantageous in correcting the habits of the slave, and accustoming him to industry and forethought: while it could not give rise to any jealousy in the minds of the other Negroes, for liberty thus conferred would be the reward of merit, which is equally within the reach of every man on the plantation. It is difficult to foresee what objections could be raised by the colonists against a plan like this; for it would place the value of the slave in their pockets, and leave them the benefit of his free services, which would be much more profitable to them than his drudgery as a slave. We do not think that this scheme would meet all the evils of the present system, or would be by any means strict justice between the parties: but it would certainly be a prodigious improvement on the actual state of things. How well this plan has answered in the Spanish South American

* See Mr. Macaulay's pamphlet, p. 67. possess-

possessions; our readers have learned from an extract in our former article.

We have already expressed our sentiments on the preposterous and unjust practice of totally excluding the evidence of a slave; and on this subject Mr. Stewart has offered some sensible remarks. 'A day,' says he, 'will arrive when it will be a subject of wonder even in the West Indies that human beings should have been precluded the means of procuring legal redress against injury and oppression; — that the shadow and mockery of justice should have been held out to them, while an insuperable bar is placed between them and the reality.' In some instances, the Whites themselves have felt the consequences of this iniquitous exclusion; for the slaves, finding it impossible to obtain legal justice, have redressed their own wrongs. A case of this kind is related by Mr. Stewart. The overseer of an estate maltreated the Negroes so excessively, that, after *reiterated and fruitless* complaints, numbers of them absconded from the property, and refused to return, dreading the punishment which awaited them. At length, a party of these fugitive slaves formed, as Mr. S. states it, the 'desperate and atrocious' design of murdering the man, which they effected; and subsequently they suffered death for the crime. The overseer had been allowed to hold his situation for many years before this catastrophe, *notwithstanding his cruelties were notorious to the whole neighbourhood*; and the assassins neither robbed his house, nor molested the wife or child of their victim, though both were in their power. For our own part, we can never palliate the crime of murder: but this act of vengeance might be termed, in the words of Lord Bacon, "a sort of wild justice." We consider an alteration in the colonial laws on this subject as absolutely essential to the proposed reformation.

Supposing the debasing practice of arbitrary corporal punishments to be abolished, — a field to be opened to the industry and hopes of the slaves, — their property to be protected, — and their persons to be insured from violence, — we may lastly consider their moral and religious habits; for, until we cease to regard and treat them as brutes, it is vain to expect them to conduct themselves like rational and responsible creatures. We have seen how ineffectual all endeavors have been, in the present state of our colonies, to introduce any thing like religious knowledge or moral light among the Negroes; and we are fortified in this view of the question by Mr. Stewart's statements. It has been asserted (and never disproved) that the curates, who were specially appointed for the instruction of the slaves, have in several cases applied

to proprietors, trustees, and managers of properties, expressing not only their willingness but their desire to be called to discharge the active duties of their office in the instruction of the ignorant slaves, but their services have not been accepted.

'What then,' adds Mr. S., 'is to be done? Either a positive law must be enacted, obliging proprietors and others to have their slaves baptized and instructed, or those slaves must be abandoned to the probability of indefinitely remaining in their present state of intellectual barbarism; and while they so remain, little more can be attempted towards still further improving their condition: a progressive improvement in their moral and in their political condition must go hand in hand.' (P. 293.)

To the proposal of declaring that all the children, who may be born after a certain day, shall be free, — which is the plan brought forwards by Mr. Buxton, — Mr. Stewart has made some objections which deserve consideration.

'In the late discussions on the momentous subject of the abolition of slavery in the colonies, the mode most generally recommended is, that all the children born of slaves, after a certain period, shall be free; and some have suggested that the owners of the mothers of those children should be obliged to support them until they attained a certain age; but the proposers do not say any thing of compensation to be made to the owners for the loss they would thereby sustain.* It certainly must appear strange to those unacquainted with slavery and its details that a law should be deemed unjust which declared a child — hereafter to be born — in fact, a nonentity — free, without the consent of or any compensation to the owner of its mother. But the fact is that a female with a healthy infant is held to be at least 20 per cent. more valuable than she was before it was born; and at five years of age that child is computed to be worth half the price of an able field-slave: so that if such a measure were resorted to, the least † the owner would expect would be compensation in full for what he considered to be *bona fide* his property. Were this the only obstacle to the measure, there would be little difficulty attending it: compensation would be made, and there would be an end of the matter. But there are other and more weighty objections to such a proceeding. In twenty years after the adoption of this measure, the bulk of the young and vigorous portion of the Negro population would be free persons, while the remainder would be slaves; — a state of things inconceivably mortifying and disheartening to the latter, and calculated to excite a dangerous spirit of

* This observation cannot apply to Mr. Buxton, who (as we have before remarked) explicitly recognized the claim to compensation.

† We really cannot divine, if compensation in full be the least which the slave-owner would expect, what would be the most which his modesty would lead him to demand.

discontent and disaffection. There would be a favored and free community of blacks in the midst of another doomed to slavery for life, and for no other reason, but because the latter had the misfortune to be born a few years, months, or days, sooner than the former. It would in fact be the spectacle of a chosen and a condemned *caste* formed from people of the same race and lineage — the one exalted, the other degraded, by a mere accidental cause over which neither had any control. — But it is not probable that so unnatural a state of things would long exist, without producing a convulsion in which the liberated race would probably be aiding and assisting.' (P. 351.)

Were the measures which we have canvassed in the former part of the present article put in force, little could be apprehended from carrying the above proposal into effect. Independently of the habits of industry and self-government, which the Negro-population would be acquiring by such a reformation in their condition, the conviction that they were not "doomed to slavery for life," but that their emancipation depended on their own exertions, would prevent the sentiment of injustice and inequality of which Mr. S. is apprehensive. At the same time, it might be right, both in fairness to the planters who have borne the expence of rearing the children, and in order to render the situation of the old and the rising generation less glaringly unequal, to bind the young Negroes apprentices for a period which might be sufficient to remunerate their masters; and during which, by the operation of the changes that we have mentioned, it is to be hoped that the work of emancipation would have made considerable progress among the elder slaves. At the expiration of this period, measures might perhaps be taken to complete the extermination of slavery throughout our colonial dominions.

Another highly important topic is connected with this question, on which, however, our space will allow us to touch but lightly: — we allude to the interference of the British legislature, in enforcing such measures as it may deem expedient and just for bettering the condition of the slaves. The colonial legislatures, more especially that of Jamaica, have always most pertinaciously asserted their right to the sole and exclusive regulation of the internal affairs of the colonies; and on this point the Committee of the House of Assembly of Jamaica have drawn a singular distinction, in their Report on the Slave-Registry Bill. * Admitting the general right of Parliament to make all laws that equally affect the whole empire, they also recognize its authority "to regulate their external

* See "Further Proceedings of the Honorable House of Assembly," p. 6.

relations, and to declare with whom and in what commodities they shall trade." Now it is certainly difficult to imagine any enactments which would more nearly affect the "internal affairs" of the colonists, than the regulation of their trade, which is in fact the sum-total of their "internal affairs." To tell them that, when they have made their sugar they shall not export it, we conceive would affect their internal interests fully as much as a statute compelling them to burn their cart-whips; and yet the Committee gravely insist that the British Parliament has jurisdiction in the one instance and not in the other. Few hopes can be entertained of the colonial governments taking any effectual measures to remedy abuses in which, either as collective bodies or as the individual members of those bodies, they are themselves partakers. Yet they are fully aware that an obstinate resistance to all amendments might perhaps compel the interference of the mother-country; and they have, therefore, in some cases, themselves introduced changes, which ought to be regarded with considerable jealousy, because there is but too much reason to believe them to be merely colorable reforms.* On the policy and consequences of forcing enactments on the colonies, doubts may be entertained; and Mr. Stewart assures us that they would be *resisted at all hazards*. Is it not singular that the colonists, who insist so rigidly on subordination and obedience from their slaves, should contemplate the idea of themselves resisting the authority of the mother-country? Our Parliament might surely answer them with the arguments which they are themselves so fond of adopting, and might safely rest their case on the possession of *superior power*.

We regret our inability to notice the lighter and more entertaining portions of the volume before us; which contain a lively picture of the state of manners and society in the island of Jamaica, and a general description of the country and its natural productions. Many curious details are likewise given concerning the habits of the Negroes, and of the people of color; the *Mulattoes*, *Samboes*, *Quadroons*, and *Mestees*, who

* See the Resolutions which were drawn from the House of Assembly by the proposal of the Slave-Registry Bill — "*Further Proceedings*," &c. p. 42. We noticed a covert attack on Mr. Wilberforce in the first of them: "Resolved, That early in the next session this House will take into consideration the state of religion amongst the slaves, and carefully investigate the means of diffusing the light of genuine Christianity, divested of the dark and dangerous fanaticism of the Methodists, which has been attempted to be propagated, and which, grafted on the African superstitions," &c. &c.

form the connecting links between the Whites and the Blacks, Of the morals both of the former and the latter, we are sorry to say, that Mr. Stewart does not present more favorable accounts than we have repeatedly derived from preceding writers.

ART. VIII. Account of an Expedition from Pittsburgh to the Rocky Mountains. By Edwin James, &c.

[Article concluded from p. 352. Number for August.]

MAJOR LONG having returned from the seat of government to Engineer-cantonment, with fresh instructions, the Expedition was re-organized; Capt. Bell being appointed journaliat; Lieut. Swift, assistant topographer, and commander of the guard; Mr. Say, zoologist; Dr. James, botanist, mineralogist, and surgeon; Mr. Peal, assistant naturalist; and Mr. Seymour, landscape-painter. To these gentlemen were attached pack-horsemen, hunters, and soldiers; but the outfit of physical and astronomical instruments was comparatively slender, owing to the difficulty of procuring them of an accurate construction, and of conveying them with safety over rugged and pathless tracks of country. Every man was accoutred with a gun, shot-pouch, and powder-horn, and most of them with pistols. The farther exploration of the Missouri having been countermanded, Lieut. Graham was directed to proceed with the steam-boat down to the Mississippi, with a view to the execution of his special orders. His progress was first directed to St. Louis, thence up the Mississippi to the De Meven rapids, and next down the river to Cape Girardeau; making such observations and sketches as were requisite for constructing a chart of that part of the river, and of the adjacent country.—In the mean time, the Major having completed his arrangements, the land-party were ordered on an excursion to the source of the Platte, and thence by the way of the Arkansa and Red rivers to the Mississippi, a route represented as destitute of resources, and infested by hostile Indians. The travellers, however, took their departure on the 6th of June, in a westerly direction; traversing, for the first ten miles, high and barren prairies, and encamping in the afternoon on the *Papillon*, or Butterfly Creek. This river-course, like many others in these arid plains, is nearly destitute of water, except in rainy seasons. Next morning, they reached the Elk-horn, a considerable stream, tributary to the Platte, and at that time just fordable. The valley of the Platte, upwards of a hundred miles in length, and from three

to eight in width, presents an almost unvaried plain, or natural meadow, the only timber being a narrow and interrupted line of trees along its course. By proceeding in a nearly south-westerly direction, the party reached the valley of the Wolf-river, or Loup-fork of the Platte; where they found some plants which had not before occurred to their notice, particularly a supposed *Nuttalia*, with a large edible root, *Plantago Lagopus*, *Batschia longiflora*, several *Vicia*, and the superb sweet pea, or *Lathyrus polymorphus*: but they could discover no game, except a few shy and wary antelopes.

On the 11th, the party came in contact with the Pawnees, who were then occupied with a great *medicine-feast*, but, after some delay, condescended to welcome them with refreshments and visits. The population of the three villages belonging to these Indians amounts to about six thousand, of whom nearly one-third may be reckoned warriors; a force which is respected by the Sioux, and the neighbouring nations. The horses, which are as numerous as the people, feed in the plains during the day, but are confined at night; and these, with a breed of sharp-eared meagre dogs, are the only domesticated animals. On the approach of winter, the Pawnees conceal their stores of corn, dried pumpkins, beans, &c., and with their dogs and horses abandon their mud-villages, on account of want of wood for fuel, and provender for their horses; and they encamp in their skin-lodges wherever they find enough of cotton-wood and of game. 'The horses, in the country bordering the Missouri, are fed, during the winter, in the extensive wooded bottoms of that river, and are not, therefore, confined exclusively to the cotton-wood, having access to other timber, also to the rushes and coarse grass which abound in the bottoms. We are, however, well assured that the Indian horses, farther to the west, about the upper branches of the Platte, and Arkansa, subsist and thrive during the winter with no other article of food than the bark and branches of the cotton-wood.' Among the shrubs and plants that abound in the sands opposite to the Loup village, are a large flowering and fragrant *rose*, (the species, or variety, is not mentioned,) and the beautiful *Symphoria glomerata*; and on the hills, at a little distance, was observed the *Cactus fragilis*, which was first detected on the Missouri by Lewis and Clarke.

June 14th, the journey was prosecuted southwardly, over a sandy and very infertile surface, of moderate elevation, frequented by the *Arctomys Ludoviciana*, or *Louisiana Marmot*, more commonly known by the very inappropriate appellation of *Prairie Dog*. These animals form whole villages of burrows, occupying from a few acres to several miles, and, like their

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congeners, are dormant in winter. Some of the more remarkable plants noticed were *Cactus ferox*, more thorny than the *opuntia*, *C. mammillaris*, and the beautiful *Cristaria coccinea*, whose flowers resemble those of the common wild rose, but are more deeply coloured. In the evening, the travellers arrived on the Platte, which they ascended till the 18th. This river is almost uniformly broad and shallow, and incumbered with shifting sand-bars. Though now 200 miles distant from its confluence with the Missouri, it was still from one to three miles in breadth, and contained numerous islands, covered with a scanty growth of cotton-trees, *Amorpha fruticosa*, and other shrubs. A little farther up, the mountains close on it, and produce a change of scenery, with some diversity in the aspect of vegetation; for here was first remarked the *Argemone alba*, a new species of *Prickly Poppy*, with a spreading white flower, and the leaves covered with innumerable large and strong spines; besides a few specimens of *Yucca angustifolia*. Above the confluence of the north and south forks of the river, immense herds of bisons were observed, which occasionally darkened the face of the country. These quadrupeds have been gradually extirpated or driven from the Atlantic states, beyond the lakes, the Illinois, and the southern portions of the Mississippi; the hunters having been accustomed to attack multitudes of them from mere wantonness, leaving their carcasses to be devoured by predaceous animals. Their flesh, according to the testimony of the present travellers, 'is in no degree inferior in delicacy and sweetness to that of the common ox.' The otherwise cheerless aspect of these regions was likewise animated by numbers of deer, badgers, hares, marmots, eagles, buzzards, ravens, and owls: while various species of *Artemisia* were scattered along the indulating wastes.

On the 30th, the snowy tops of the Rocky Mountains at length appeared in the distant perspective.

For several days the sky had been clear, and in the morning we had observed an unusual degree of transparency in every part of the atmosphere. As the day advanced, and the heat of the sun began to be felt, such quantities of vapour were seen to ascend from every part of the plain, that all objects, at a little distance, appeared magnified, and variously distorted. An undulating or tremulous motion in ascending lines was manifest over every part of the surface. Commencing soon after sunrise, it continued to increase in quantity until the afternoon, when it diminished gradually, keeping an even pace with the intensity of the sun's heat. The density of the vapour was often such as to produce the perfect image of a pool of water in every valley upon which we could look down at an angle of about ten degrees. This effect was
several

several times seen, as perfect and beautiful, as to deceive almost every one of our party. A herd of bisons, at the distance of a mile, seemed to be standing in a pool of water; and what appeared to us the reflected image was as distinctly seen as the animal himself. Illusions of this kind are common in the African and Asiatic deserts, as we learn from travellers, and from the language of poets. They are called by the Persians *Sirraib*, "water of the desert;" and in the Sanscrit language, *Mriga-trichna*, "the desire or thirst of the antelope."

In proportion as the expedition approached the mountains, the soil became still more barren; and the air, during the morning and evening, felt sensibly chilled, the thermometer descending from 80° to 55°: but the banks of the Platte were more wooded than heretofore. The mountains, meanwhile, seemed to recede from the impatient spectators, who had fancied them much nearer than they proved to be. *Bartonia nuda*, and *B. ornata* are both indigenous to this part of the route.

'These most singular plants are interesting on several accounts, particularly the regular expansion of their large and beautiful flowers towards the evening of several successive days. In the morning the long and slender petals, and the petal-like nectaries, which compose the flower, are found accurately closed upon each other, forming a cone of about an inch in length. In this situation they remain, if the weather be clear, until about sunset, when they gradually expand. If the weather be dark and cloudy, with a humid atmosphere, they are awakened from their slumbers at an earlier hour. We have, in some instances, seen them fully expanded early in the afternoon; but this has always been in stormy or cloudy weather. In this particular the *Bartonia* bears some resemblance to the great night-flowering cereus, to which it is closely allied; but the gaudy petals of the cereus, once unfolded, fall into a state of irretrievable collapse, whereas the *Bartonia* closes and expands its flowers for many days in succession.'

July 6th, the tents were pitched at the base of the Rocky Mountains, immediately in front of a chasm through which the Platte issues. An extensive range of sand-stone, with its margin leaning on the primitive ridges, is composed of broken and comminuted fragments, containing relics of animals now extinct, and appears to have received its inclined or vertical position in consequence of some great catastrophe, at a remote period of the world. 'The valley which intervenes between this huge parapet of sand-rock and the first range of the primitive is nearly a mile in width; it is ornamented with numerous insulated columnar rocks, sometimes of a snowy whiteness, standing like pyramids and obelisks, interspersed among mounds and hillocks, which seem to have resulted

tuted from the disintegration of similar masses. This range of sand-stone would appear to have been originally of uniform elevation and uninterrupted continuity, running along the base of the mountains from north to south; but it has been cut through by the bed of the Platte, and all the larger streams in their descent to the plains.' The basis of the primitive chain is an aggregate of felspar and hornblend, and may be classed with the syenites. Dr. James, and other individuals, ascended to various heights, in the direction of the chain: but they found their way on most occasions painful and laborious, and sometimes even hazardous.

Resuming the journey on the 9th of July, the party proceeded along a small tributary of the Platte, and up the valley of Defile Creek, part of which was intersected by dams thrown across by the beaver. Those who pursued its course to the mountains were gratified with a display of the following rock-formations: 1. Horizontal sand-stone, comprizing extensive beds of coarse conglomerate; 2. fine compact gray sand-stone, containing a few organic remains, and inclined at an angle of nearly twenty degrees towards the west; 3. lofty and detached columns of a reddish, or deep-brown sand-stone; 4. coarse conglomerate, alternating with beds of fine white sand-stone, resting against the granite in a highly inclined position, and including the remains of *terebratula*, *productus*, &c.; and, lastly, granite, of a dark reddish brown, containing a large proportion of flesh-colored felspar, and black mica, rising abruptly in immense mountain-masses, and stretching far to the west. Every day's march now presented wild and magnificent scenery, and usually some novelty to the naturalist, though not unattended with fatigue and a scarcity of provisions. At Boiling Spring Creek, on the verge of the plains of the Arkansa, the tents were pitched for a few days, to afford Dr. James an opportunity of ascending one of the highest peaks of the Rocky Mountains; and his account of this toilsome and perilous exploit will be perused with trembling interest: but we can afford only a few scattered extracts.

'The ascending party,' he says, 'found the surface in many places covered with such quantities of this loose and crumbled granite, rolling from under their feet, as rendered the ascent extremely difficult. We now began to credit the assertions of the guide, who had conducted us to the foot of the peak, and there left us, with the assurance that the whole of the mountain to its summit was covered with loose sand and gravel; so that, though many attempts had been made by the Indians and by hunters to ascend it, none had ever proved successful. We passed several of these tracts, not without some apprehension for our lives; as there was danger, when the foot-hold was once lost, of sliding down, and being thrown over

over precipices. After labouring with extreme fatigue over about two miles, in which several of these dangerous places occurred, we halted at sunset in a small cluster of fir-trees. We could not, however, find a piece of even ground large enough to lie down upon, and were under the necessity of securing ourselves from rolling into the brook near which we encamped by means of a pole placed against two trees. In this situation, we passed an uneasy night; and though the mercury fell only to 54° , felt some inconvenience from cold.

‘ On the morning of the 14th, as soon as daylight appeared, having suspended in a tree our blankets, all our provisions, except about three pounds of bison’s flesh, and whatever articles of clothing could be dispensed with, we continued the ascent, hoping to be able to reach the summit of the peak, and return to the same camp in the evening. After passing about half a mile of rugged and difficult travelling, like that of the preceding day, we crossed a deep chasm, opening towards the bed of the small stream we had hitherto ascended; and following the summit of the ridge between these, found the way less difficult and dangerous.’ —

‘ A little above the point where the timber disappears entirely, commences a region of astonishing beauty, and of great interest on account of its productions. The intervals of soil are sometimes extensive, and covered with a carpet of low but brilliantly-flowering alpine plants. Most of these have either matted procumbent stems, or such as, including the flower, rarely rise more than an inch in height. In many of them the flower is the most conspicuous and the largest part of the plant, and in all the colouring is astonishingly brilliant.

‘ A deep blue is the prevailing colour among these flowers; and the pentstemon erianthera, the mountain-columbine (*aquilegia cœrulea*), and other plants common to less elevated districts, were much more intensely coloured than in ordinary situations. It cannot be doubted, that the peculiar brilliancy of colouring observed in alpine plants, inhabiting near the utmost limits of phænogamous vegetation, depends principally upon the intensity of the light transmitted from the bright and unobscured atmosphere of those regions, and increased by reflection from the immense impending masses of snow. May the deep cerulean tint of the sky have an influence in producing the corresponding colour so prevalent in the flowers of these alpine plants?’

Flora was still lavish of her beauties and varieties, until the Doctor and his attendants had approached towards the summit: which consists of a nearly level area, ten or fifteen acres in extent, almost destitute even of lichens, and covered with large splintery fragments of the granitic rock, under which is a thick bed of ice. This desired spot was attained about four o’clock in the afternoon, in a clear atmosphere and calm weather.

‘ From the summit of the peak, the view towards the north-west and south-west is diversified with innumerable mountains, all white

white with snow; and on some of the more distant it appears to extend down to their bases. Immediately under our feet, on the west, lay the narrow valley of the Arkansa, which we could trace running towards the north-west, probably more than sixty miles.

On the north side of the peak was an immense mass of snow and ice. The ravine in which it lay terminated in a woodless and apparently fertile valley, lying west of the first great ridge, and extending far towards the north. This valley must undoubtedly contain a considerable branch of the Platte. In a part of it, distant probably thirty miles, the smoke of a large fire was distinctly seen, supposed to indicate the encampment of a party of Indians.

To the east lay the great plain, rising as it receded, until in the distant horizon it appeared to mingle with the sky. A little want of transparency in the atmosphere, added to the great elevation from which we saw the plain, prevented our distinguishing the small inequalities of the surface. The Arkansa, with several of its tributaries, and some of the branches of the Platte, could be distinctly traced as on a map, by the line of timber along their courses.

On the south the mountain is continued, having another summit, (supposed to be that ascended by Captain Pike,) at the distance of eight or ten miles. This, however, falls much below the high peak in point of elevation, being wooded quite to its top. Between the two lies a small lake, apparently a mile long, and half a mile wide, discharging eastward into the Boiling Spring Creek. A few miles farther towards the south, the range containing these two peaks terminates abruptly.

The weather was calm and clear while the detachment remained on the peak; but we were surprised to observe the air in every direction filled with such clouds of grasshoppers, as partially to obscure the day. They had been seen in vast numbers about all the higher parts of the mountain, and many had fallen upon the snow and perished. It is, perhaps, difficult to assign the cause which induces these insects to ascend to these highly elevated regions of the atmosphere. Possibly they may have undertaken migrations to some remote district; but there appears not the least uniformity in the direction of their movements. They extended upwards from the summit of the mountain to the utmost limit of vision; and as the sun shone brightly, they could be seen by the glittering of their wings, at a very considerable distance.

During the half hour which Dr. J. passed on this elevated station, the thermometer, applied to a rock on which the solar rays had fallen directly, indicated only 42°; whereas at the encampment, in the middle of the day, it stood at 96°, and did not fall below 80° till late in the evening. The main rock, near the top of the peak, is a very compact aggregate of quartz and felspar, with a little hornblend, in very small particles. From its closeness of texture, it seems to resist the growth of lichens and the action of frost. The splintery fragments are supposed to have been shivered off by light-

lightning. In compliment to Dr. James, who first scaled it, this height was named by Major Long *James's Peak*; its former designation of *Highest Peak* being presumed to be erroneous, from the position of the snow near the summits of other peaks and ridges at no great distance from it. Its elevation above the common level, ascertained by trigonometrical measurement, is about 8500 feet. — As the reader may be surprised that no account is given of observations with the barometer, it may be proper to state that, of three of these instruments, two were rendered quite unfit for service either by accident or defective construction, and the third was not sufficiently strong for supporting carriage to any distance. With regard to the general range of the Rocky Mountains, it has also been denominated the *Shining, Mexican, or Chippewyan Mountains, Andes, &c.* Its course is about N. N. W. or S. S. E., with a breadth varying from fifty to one hundred miles; including many wide and fertile valleys, interspersed among the variously disposed ridges, knobs, and peaks. The observations for latitude and longitude, which were taken by Lieut. Swift near the base of James's Peak, gave $38^{\circ} 18' 19''$ north, and $105^{\circ} 39' 44''$ west from Greenwich.

Before his departure from the encampment on the 16th, the journalist makes particular mention of the *Strix cucularia, coquimbo, or burrowing Owl*; or, at least, of a species very nearly allied to it, which frequents the excavations of the Louisiana Marmots, and, contrary to the habits of the family, appears abroad and is very active during the day.

At evening, the copious stream and verdant valley of the Arkansa refreshed the thirsty travellers, who had passed twelve continuous hours on horseback, during a very sultry day. Next morning, Dr. James, Capt. Bell, and two men, were dispatched up the river to the mountains. Where the former leaves the latter, Capt. B. discovered seven mineral springs, all of which contained muriate of soda, and possibly the sulphates of soda and magnesia, besides other impregnations; the odour of sulphuretted hydrogen being very perceptible. One of them disengages a quantity of fixed air, and another indicates the presence of sulphate of iron. — In the vicinity of this day's station was observed the *Sciurus 4-cittatus* of Say, somewhat resembling the *getulus*, Lin., a very small and handsome species. ' Its nest is composed of a most extraordinary quantity of the burrs of the xanthium branches, and other portions of the large upright cactus, small branches of pine-trees, and other vegetable productions, sufficient in some instances to fill the body of an ordinary cart. What the object of so great, and apparently so super-

fluous an assemblage of rubbish may be, we are at a loss to conjecture; we do not know what peculiarly dangerous enemy it may be intended to exclude by so much labour.' Another species of Squirrel, which Mr. Say designates *lateralis*, the Cliff-swallow, (*Hirundo lunifrons*), the beautiful *Emberiza amana*, *Coleuber cruentus*, and *Crotalus confluentus*, are likewise particularized; and, though last not least, the *Ursus horribilis*, of Ord, or *Grizzly Bear*, which is quite distinct from the common species: being characterized by the elongation of the anterior claws, and the rectilinear or slightly arcuated figure of its facial profile.

'It is not a little remarkable that the grizzly bear, which was mentioned at a very early period by Lahontan, and subsequently by several writers, is not, even at this day, established in the zoological works as [a] distinct species; that it is perfectly distinct from any described species, our description will prove. From the concurrent testimony of those who have seen the animal in its native country, and who have had an opportunity of observing its manners, it is, without doubt, the most daring and truly formidable animal that exists in the United States. He frequently pursues and attacks hunters; and no animal, whose swiftness or art is not superior to his own, can evade him. He kills the bison, and drags the ponderous carcass to a distance to devour at his leisure, as the calls of hunger may influence him.'

Reference is made to a figure of this quadruped, which we do not find in our copy of the work before us.

Scarcity of provisions forbidding a longer residence near the mountains, the line of march was now directed down the river, which not only expands in its course but becomes turbid and brackish. — On the 24th, in pursuance of a pre-concerted plan, the expedition separated into two divisions; the first of which, consisting of Capt. Bell, Mr. Say, Lieut. Swift, &c., had orders to proceed down the Arkansa, to Fort Smith; while the second, including Major Long, Dr. James, Mr. Peale, and seven men, were to cross the Arkansa, and travel southward, in quest of the sources of the Red River. Through the valley of the 'First Fork,' or of the 'Souls in Purgatory,' their progress was circuitous and laborious: but, on emerging from it, an interminable expanse of grassy desert burst on the view; and the tiresome sameness of the sand-stone formation was relieved by that of the newest fletz-trap, which is characterized by greater fertility of soil and diversity of vegetable produce. Prosecuting the direction which had been indicated to them by a Kaskalia Indian, and finding no feature of the country to correspond to his representations, they began to suspect that he had purposely misled them. In the mean time, they suffered

suffered much from heavy rains, deficiency of food, and unwholesome water; and, to add to their misfortunes, the strength of their horses visibly declined. Having with difficulty procured in the evening a specimen of *Cervus macrotis*, or *Mule-deer*, they could not defer the dressing of it till next morning, but took the dimensions and a drawing of it by the light of a large fire. Some days afterward, a fine wild horse was shot when asleep, and eagerly devoured. — On the 9th of August, the party encountered a large band of Kaskaias, or *Bad Hearts*, who courted their society chiefly with a view to pillage, and who in fact contrived to relieve them of several articles of minor importance. The country which they now traversed was composed of an extensive saline sand-stone formation, exhibiting large tracts of loose and shadeless sand; from which the light and heat were reflected with such intensity as frequently to oblige them to halt, and to seek the protection of their solitary tent, or of some blankets stretched over their rifles: but nothing could screen them from the annoyance of drift-sand, as often as the wind happened to blow. By the 17th, their wanderings had brought them within range of herds of bisons; and, although the bulls at this season were not in good eating plight, the cows afforded a favorite article of food; and even the luxury of a dessert was not now wanting.

On the opposite side of the river was a range of low sand-hills, fringed with vines, rising not more than a foot or eighteen inches from the surface. On examination, we found these hillocks had been produced exclusively by the agency of the grape-vines, arresting the sand as it was borne along by the wind, until such quantities had been accumulated as to bury every part of the plant except the end of the branches. Many of these were so loaded with fruit, as to present nothing to the eye but a series of clusters, so closely arranged as to conceal every part of the stem. The fruit of these vines is incomparably finer than that of any other native or exotic which we have met with in the United States. The burying of the greater part of the trunk, with its larger branches, produces the effect of pruning, inasmuch as it prevents the unfolding of leaves and flowers on the parts below the surface, while the protruded ends of the branches enjoy an increased degree of light and heat from the reflection of the sand. It is owing, undoubtedly, to these causes, that the grapes in question are so far superior to the fruit of the same vine in ordinary circumstances. The treatment here employed by nature, to bring to perfection the fruit of the vine, may be imitated; but, without the same peculiarities of soil and exposure, can with difficulty be carried to the same magnificent extent. Here are hundreds of acres, covered with a movable surface of sand, and abounding in vines, which, left to the agency of the sun and the winds, are, by their operation, placed in more favourable circumstances than it is
in

in the power of man, to so great an extent, to afford. We indulged ourselves to excess, if excess could be committed in the use of such delicious and salutary fruit, and invited by the cleanness of the sand, and a refreshing shade, we threw ourselves down, and slept away, with unusual zest, a few of the hours of a summer-afternoon.

The great flowering Hibiscus is here a conspicuous plant; and the black walnut-tree was observed for the first time since the party had left the Missouri. The most painful privation was still that of pure water; for, though the journey had been directed about 150 miles along the bed of a river, it presented, like the channels of its tributaries, only naked sand. In consequence, however, of heavy falls of rain, the novel sight of a running stream was joyfully greeted on the morning of the 22d;—and a halt was made on the 27th in a delightful situation, which furnished an ample supply of grass to the exhausted horses.

We found, however, the annoyance of innumerable multitudes of minute, almost invisible, wood-ticks, a sufficient counterpart to the advantages of our situation. These insects, unlike the mosquitoes, gnats, and sand-flies, are not to be turned aside by a gust of wind or an atmosphere surcharged with smoke, nor does the closest dress of leather afford any protection from their persecutions. The traveller no sooner sets foot among them, than they commence in countless thousands their silent and unseen march: ascending along the feet and legs, they insinuate themselves into every article of dress, and fasten, unperceived, their fangs upon every part of the body. The bite is not felt until the insect has had time to bury the whole of his head, and in the case of the most minute and most troublesome species, nearly his whole body, under the skin, where he fastens himself with such tenacity, that he will sooner suffer his head and body to be dragged apart than relinquish his hold. It would perhaps be advisable, when they are once thoroughly planted, to suffer them to remain unmolested, as the head and claws left under the skin produce more irritation than the living animal; but they excite such intolerable itching, that the finger-nails are sure very soon to do all finger-nails can do for their destruction. The wound, which was at first almost imperceptible, swells and inflames gradually, and being enlarged by rubbing and scratching, at length discharges a serous fluid, and finally suppurates to such an extent as to carry off the offending substance. If the insect is suffered to remain unmolested, he protracts his feast for some weeks, when he is found to have grown of enormous size, and to have assumed nearly the colour of the skin on which he has been feeding; his limbs do not enlarge, but are almost buried in the mass accumulated on his back, which extending forward bears against the skin, and at last pushes the insect from his hold. Nothing is to be hoped from becoming accustomed to the bite of these wood-ticks. On the

contrary, by long exposure to their venomous influence, the skin acquires a morbid irritability, which increases in proportion to the frequency and continuance of the evil, until at length the bite of a single tick is sufficient to produce a large and painful phlegmon. This may not be the case with every one; it was so with us.

The burning and smarting of the skin prompted us to bathe and wash whenever we met with water; but we had not long continued this practice, when we perceived it only to augment our sufferings by increasing the irritation it was meant to allay.

It is not on men alone that these blood-thirsty insects fasten themselves. Horses, dogs, and many wild animals are subject to their attacks. On the necks of horses they are observed to attain a very large size. It is, nevertheless, sufficiently evident that, like mosquitoes and other blood-sucking insects, by far the greater number of wood-ticks must spend their lives without ever establishing themselves as parasites on any animal, and even without a single opportunity of gratifying that thirst for blood which, as they can exist and perform all the common functions of their life without its agency, would seem to have been given them merely for the annoyance of all who may fall in their way.

In the catalogue of plants indigenous to this spot, are found the *Acalypha*, *Lobelia cardinalis*, *Cardiospermum halsacabum*, *Robinia pseudo-acacia*, the Mistletoe, &c.

When the travellers ascended to an open country, on the north side of the river, the surface was found to be variegated, and extensively covered with such prairies and heavy forests as occur in the tracts of the Ohio and the Mississippi. The sand-stone was now observed to glitter more in the sunshine, not only from the greater proportion of mica which it contained, but also from the crystalline surfaces of the minute particles. It rises about 200 feet from the bed of the river, and is succeeded by a stratum of lime-stone, of the common compact blue variety; abounding in casts of anomiae, entrochi, &c. resting horizontally on the summits of the hills, and decomposing less rapidly than the sand-stone.

September 10.; Major Long and his attendants arrived, to their inexpressible disappointment, at the confluence of their supposed Red River with another of much larger dimensions, which they at once perceived to be the Arkansa. Now they were completely convinced that the Indian had misled them, and that they had roamed for seven weeks along the Canadian, the entire length of which is computed to be about 1000 miles. Having, with toilsome efforts, emerged from the low grounds, and moved in a direction nearly due north, they discovered a large and frequented path; which, traversing a country of mountains and forests, interspersed with open but limited plains, they knew would conduct them to Fort Smith;

or Belle Point. Here, in fact, they arrived on the 13th, and experienced from Major Bradford and Captain Ballard the most hospitable and flattering reception. Here, too, Captain Bell and his detachment had made their appearance on the ninth.

We have now briefly to trace the progress of Captain Bell and his party down the Arkansa. Almost immediately on their outset, they found themselves surrounded by numerous bands of Indians, whose intentions were more commercial than hostile, and with whom some traffic or rather barter of articles took place. These tribes, designated Kiawas, Kaskaias, Shiennes, and Arrapahoes, have no permanent settlements, and are often engaged in warfare. For three years previously, they had been wandering on the head-waters and tributaries of the Red River, and had returned to the Arkansa on their way to the mountains at the sources of the Platte. Of a small war-troop of Arrapahoes, whom they next encountered, the leader was a *medicine-man*, who unfolded the stores of his mystic bag, and expatiated on their virtues with much complacency.

* They consisted of various roots, seeds, pappus, and powders, both active and inert, as respects their action on the human system, carefully enveloped in skins, leaves, &c., some of which, to his credulous faith, were invested with supernatural powers. Similar qualities were also attributed to some animal-products with which these were accompanied, such as claws of birds, beaks, feathers, and hair. But the object that more particularly attracted our attention was the intoxicating bean, as it has been called, of which he possessed upwards of a pint. Julien recognized it immediately. He informed us, that it is in such high request amongst the Oto Indians, that a horse has been exchanged for eight or ten of them. In that nation the intoxicating bean is only used by a particular society, who at their nocturnal orgies make a decoction of the bean, and with much pomp and ceremony administer the delightful beverage to each member. The initiation fees of this society are rather extravagant, and the proceeds are devoted principally to the purchase of the bean. That old sensualist, Shongotonga (big horse), is the principal or presiding member of the society, and the bean is obtained in some circuitous manner from the Pawnee Piquas of Red River, who probably receive it from the Mexican Indians. With some few trinkets of little value, we purchased the principal portion of our medicine man's store of beans; they are of an ovate form, and of a light red, sometimes yellowish colour, with a rather deeply impressed oval cicatrix, and larger than a common bean. A small number of a differently coloured and rather larger bean was intermixed with them.

As our explorers continued their route, the river was observed to dilate, and to be studded with small islands: but

the timber on its banks became, at the same time, less abundant. The alluvial soil supplied a moderate growth of grass, but the general surface of the country was flat and sterile, and the landscape in course monotonous. On the low grounds, the horses were terribly tormented with a species of tabanus, which dyed their necks with blood: but they disappeared on the more elevated surface. During the night of the 5th of August, as the wind ceased, the lowing of thousands of bisons, intermingled with the shrill barking of the jackals and the howling of white wolves, announced the inhospitable wastes, which extended in all directions. Tracts of sandy soil, overrun with sun-flowers, ensued; and trees began to vanish from the scene.

In the neighbourhood of the Little Arkansa, the summer-range of the bisons terminates, but the soil is less barren, and the banks of the river and several ravines are tolerably well wooded. The undulations of the surface also became more considerable as the party advanced; the predominating rock being grey ferruginous sand-stone, with remains of shells in a withered or decomposed state. On the 14th, *Cæsar*, a faithful mastiff, expired from exhaustion; and on the 19th, *Buck*, another dog, shared the fate of his late companion. Both men and horses, indeed, were now subjected to the combined and painful sensations of hunger, thirst, and fatigue; for the bluffs were steep and stony, hardly any game appeared within reach of the hunters, and the water was brackish, or otherwise unfit for drinking. To add to these vexations, one of the horses was abandoned as unserviceable; and, on the night of the 30th, three worthless attendants ran off with three of the best of those animals; and with packages containing the clothes of the officers, all the Indian presents, and all the MS. notes which Mr. Say and Lieutenant Swift had taken during the extensive journey from Engineer-cantonment to the present station. 'Those of the former consisted of five books, viz. one book of observations on the manners and habits of the Mountain Indians, and their history, so far as it could be obtained from the interpreters; one book of notes on the manners and habits of animals, and descriptions of species; one book containing a journal; two books containing vocabularies of the languages of the Mountain Indians; and those of the latter consisted of a topographical journal of the same portion of our expedition. All these, being utterly useless to the wretches who now possessed them, were probably thrown away upon the ocean of prairie, and consequently the labour of months was consigned to oblivion by these uneducated Vandals.' The attempts to retrace these perfidious men,

men, and to recover the papers, proved unavailing; and thus not only the American government, but the public at large, have been defrauded of much interesting information.

Fortunately for the reduced and debilitated travellers, they fell in, on the first of September, with a hunting-party of the Osage Indians; whose village was distant only fifteen miles, and who furnished them with some temporary supply of food, though they also pilfered from them a few articles of no great value. These Indians are particularly expert in hunting wild horses, which they run down by relays, and then noose with great dexterity. Mr. Sibley, factor at Fort Osage, has furnished many details respecting their political history.

Having crossed the Verdigrise River, where it measures about 80 yards in breadth, and one foot in depth, the weary wanderers arrived at Mr. Glenn's trading-house, where they procured the requisite information concerning the remainder of their route. They next crossed the Neosho, or Grand River, and on the 6th reached the prairie of Bayou Menard; where, to their great joy, they came in contact with white and civilized men. Forging the Illinois, near the Saline, they proceeded through a country wooded with small oaks, and occasionally interspersed with meadows of limited extent, crossing the deep ravine of Bayou Viande. 'The Bayous, as they are named in this country, unlike those of the lower portion of the Mississippi River, are large and often very profound ravines or water-courses, which, during the spring-season, or after heavy rains, receive the water from the surface of the prairies, and convey it to the river; but in the summer and early autumn, the sources being exhausted, the water subsides in their channels, occupying only the deeper parts of their bed, in the form of stagnant pools, exhaling miasmata to the atmosphere, and rendering their vicinity prejudicial to health.' On the 9th, as already stated, the detachment reached the place of rendezvous, 'after a houseless exposure in the wilderness of ninety-three days.'

We have accompanied the Expedition thus far, but want of room compels us reluctantly to pass over the account of its remaining members prosecuting their way to Cape Girardeau, the hot-springs of Washita, &c.; when they traversed more known regions, and experienced the accustomed hospitality of the Cherokees and white-settlers. They were, for some time, incapable of enjoying rest in feather-beds; and at Cape Girardeau most of them were attacked, almost simultaneously, with intermittent fever, supposed to have originated in the offensive atmosphere of the Arkansa bottoms, and to have

been accelerated by the interruption of accustomed habits and the discontinuance of excitement afforded by travelling.

Our geological readers would not easily pardon us, if we closed our notices without adverting to the singular and *staggering* fact that, in the Alleghany and Ozark mountains, (as far as they have been explored,) the granites and more *ancient* rocks have been found in the *lowest* positions. — Cape Girardeau, and the surrounding country, to a great extent, are very liable to earthquakes, or *shakes*, as they are familiarly called, but which are seldom attended by any destructive consequences. ‘Several persons, passengers on board a steamboat, ascending the Mississippi, in 1820, went on shore near New Madrid. In one of the houses which they entered, they found a small collection of books: as they were amusing themselves with the examination of these, they felt the house so violently shaken, that they were scarce [scarcely] able to stand upon their feet; some consternation was of course felt, and as several of the persons were ladies, much terror was expressed: “Don’t be alarmed,” said the lady of the house, “it is nothing but an earthquake.”’

To the third volume are subjoined condensed official reports by Major Long, and observations on the mineralogy and geology of a part of the United States, west of the Mississippi; the whole forming a valuable abstract of the more general and important results of the arduous undertaking, over which the above-mentioned intelligent officer presided. Though various specimens of plants, &c. were unavoidably destroyed by rains, or in fording rivers, yet the ensuing note, annexed to the narrative, attests the diligence and activity of the collectors.

‘Most of the collections made on this expedition have arrived at Philadelphia, and are in good preservation; they comprise, among other things, more than sixty prepared skins of new or rare animals; and several thousand insects, seven or eight hundred of which are probably new; five hundred have already been ascertained to be so, and have been described. The herbarium contains between four and five hundred species of plants new to the Flora of the United States, and many of them supposed to be undescribed.

‘Many of the minerals collected by Mr. Jessup were left at Smithland, Kentucky. A suit of small specimens, adapted to the illustration of the geology of the country from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains, has been received.

‘A collection of terrestrial and fluviatile shells was also made. Of these more than twenty new species have already been described and published. The organic reliquæ collected on the voyage

voyage from Pittsburgh to St. Louis have not as yet been received in Philadelphia, but are daily expected.

The sketches, executed by Mr. Peale, amounted to one hundred and twenty-two. Of these, twenty-one only were finished; the residue being merely outlines of quadrupeds, birds, insects, &c.

The landscape-views, by Mr. Seymour, are one hundred and fifty in number; of these, sixty have been finished.

In submitting to our readers a rapid sketch of the movements and proceedings of this trans-Atlantic expedition, we have suppressed various particulars which are repeatedly stated in the journals; such as the occurrence of violent thunder-storms, the presence of rattle-snakes, and other incidents which can be readily conceived by all who are in the least conversant with the climate and productions of North America. For the distances and bearings of the stations particularized, we would refer our readers to the map prefixed to the work, on which the various routes are carefully traced; and, for a lively *coup d'œil* of groupes of Indians, we would request them to consult the plates, which are no doubt characteristic. The style is plain and unadorned, and more nervous than correct or harmonious; while the narrative, which never deviates into digression, but presents an unbroken series of statement and observation, may, by the general and fastidious reader, be deemed somewhat dull and monotonous. British ears, too, may not be easily reconciled to such *Columbianisms* as 'eventuated in complete success,'—'Lieutenant Graham concluded to exhibit the boat with the engine in action,'—'were raised together from their infancy,'—'having *infracted* the injunctions,'—'necessitated for food,'—'oberrating Tartars,'—'impetrating oblations,'—'populated by the whites,'—'tested the confidence,' &c. It is, however, of far more consequence to remark that none of the recitals appear to be tinged by national partialities, or by the spirit of religious or political party; and that the tenor of these unpretending volumes will justify the gratifying inference that, under a series of hardships and privations which fall to the lot of few, the officers must have discharged their respective duties with accuracy and zeal: co-operating, by their spirited exertions and uninterrupted good understanding, to the attainment of the objects of their laborious mission.

ART. VIII. *Europe and America in 1821: with an Examination of the Plan laid before the Cortes of Spain for the Recognition of the Independence of South America.* Translated from the French of the Abbé de Pradt, by J. D. Williams. 8vo. 2 Vols. Boards. Cowie and Co. 1822.

NATURALISTS assert of the aphid, that a single impregnation is sufficient to give birth to six or eight successive generations of aphides; who, moreover, are brought into the world *all pregnant!* In the economy of certain insects, what a *deal of trouble* does this save! Happily for the anti-populationists, we have nothing of this fecundity in the human species: but we might approach to it in literary produce if we were all like the Abbé de Pradt, who is gifted with part of the enviable fertilization of an aphid, each of his literary productions coming into existence already parturient of another progeny. On such wondrous powers we gaze with astonishment! Before we have had time to register the name, announce the subject, and describe the features of one of his works, another is brought forth almost in time to dispute the honors of primogeniture. Indeed we have a suspicion that, with all our efforts, he has published some things of which we have never been able to take cognizance.

To the general character of the Abbé's compositions, our readers can be no strangers, for we have allotted to many of them at least as large a space as they deserve*, and have given him ample credit for the merit which he possesses. Bonaparte, speaking of the "*Manuscrit venu de St. Hélène*," of which he was *not* the author, and being asked by Mr. O'Meara whether he thought that it was written by the Abbé de Pradt, said, "No, I do not think that he is the author. De Pradt may be said to be *une espèce de fille de joie qui prête son corps* to all the world for payment. Once, when he was giving vent to his customary *bavardage* and extravagant projects in my presence, I contented myself with humming a part of an air,

" *Ou courez vous donc, Monsieur l'Abbé,
Vous allez vous casser le nez;*

which disconcerted him so much that he had not another word to utter." (See O'Meara's *Napoleon in Exile; or, Voice from St. Helena*, vol. ii. p. 208.)

* See particularly vol. lxxxiv. p. 174, &c.; and vol. xc. p. 522. See also the *Appendix* to our last volume, published with this Number, for an account of M. de P.'s Comparative View of the Power of England and of Russia.

We certainly meet with a prodigious degree of *levardage* and extravagance in the Abbé's speculations. He speaks of the affairs of nations as if he had the eye of Omniscience itself to penetrate the interior of every cabinet in Christendom, and pronounces his judgment concerning their relative powers and policy with oracular confidence. Europe, according to him, is at this moment actually spell-bound; in a constrained attitude, but one which she must continue to preserve—for this plain reason, that she cannot change it. On his magical chess-board, he has at one and the same instant given check-mate to all her kings and potentates: on whatsoever side we turn, nothing is to be perceived from which the least reform or important change can be expected; and the intimate connection of the great powers among themselves excludes all possibility of their encroachment on one another! Henceforth, from want of means to satisfy it, what is properly termed *State-ambition* can no longer exist in Europe; and henceforth no opportunity will present itself to the ambitious, and lovers of conquests! The three great northern powers, mutually supporting each other, says the Abbé, with fifteen hundred thousand bayonets to engage in a *va-tout*, have thrown over Europe 'a net of iron,' and opposed to it a mass as inaccessible as immovable: in these powers is concentrated the true strength of Europe, which excludes every possibility of opposition. The loss of the great sway of France, effected in 1812 and 1814, shifted the balance of power, and removed it from the western to the eastern part of the Continent: the north has risen as the south has declined; Italy and the southern states of Germany are destitute of any real influence over Europe; and Spain and Portugal are equally impotent. Their sole weight in the balance of European power arises from their connection with France; but for this, it seems, 'they would be political non-entities; and destined, as they really are, soon to lose their colonies, both of them will shortly cease to have any effective existence in Europe. They are two states deprived of all public importance.' All states, indeed, except Russia, Austria, and Prussia, are now but secondary. Separated from their councils, says the Abbé in one of his lively sallies, where are they? What are they about? What can they or what dare they do?—To Russia in particular he is bowing the suppliant knee; burning incense before the throne of the Muscovite, and presenting to him the fragrant censer with obsequious smiles. 'Russia,' he says, 'forms a class by herself in European sovereignty, she is sufficient to herself, she requires no alliance, dreads none, and thus obtains the mastery of Europe

Europe. . . . her real strength is, at present, tempered and as if veiled by the admirable qualities of a sovereign who prefers transplanting the influence of his power to a moral region, rather than employ it in the vulgar career of ambition. Place the ancient emperors, with the manners of their times, on the throne filled by their successors, the *eldest son of European civilization, whose delight it is to graft her on the wild stock of Muscovite barbarity,* &c. &c.

After having given what he calls the 'Moral Statistics of Europe,' and sketched with spirit and truth the pious and political features of the Holy Alliance, the Abbé disserts on the 'constitutional spirit' which is abroad; that is, the spirit now spreading among mankind over the whole surface of the civilised globe, for the establishment of constitutional governments. He makes a geographical division of Europe into two parts, the one in which the constitutional system more or less prevails, and the other the seat of absolute power.

'The constitutional line extends from Stockholm to Cadiz, through Warsaw, leaving behind it Sweden, Norway, England, Holland, France, Southern Germany, Switzerland, Spain, and Portugal. There exist within this enclosure from seventy-eight to eighty millions of inhabitants, for I do not reckon the Turks as Europeans; Naples also lately formed a part of it.

'The line of absolute power extends from Copenhagen to the extremity of Sicily, and reaches as far as the Volga and the Black Sea; Russia in Asia does not enter into my calculation: this division may also contain eighty millions of inhabitants. If it has the advantage in the number of its inhabitants, this inequality is compensated by the quality of the inhabitants, and the habitations of the first division; France and England being, in many respects, superior to the Hungarians, the Bohemians, to the general classes of Russians, to Russia, to Prussia, and to a considerable portion of the Austrian territories; in every calculation, we must take all things into consideration.

'The first reflection arising from these two great divisions is, that the whole of the *west* of Europe belongs to the Constitutional System, and the *east* to absolute powers. In such a state of things we may imagine the west freed from the despotism, which has so long oppressed it, driving it towards the east from whence it came, and forcing it back to its birth-place. Take a geographical map and you may easily follow, from the borders of France and England, the line of liberty, which decreases as you approach towards Asia.'

The zone of absolute power cannot sympathize with that of rights: it dreads to come in contact with it: the powers of light and darkness are not more hostile. In the first thirteen chapters of this work, the author is employed in laying down
general

general principles, and in illustrating general propositions on the nature of civilization, despotism, and the power of the aristocracy in various countries. If these are verbose, excursive, and tautological, what epithets can be found for those which follow? We can only use the same in the superlative degree, and say that they are the most verbose, the most excursive, and the most tautological specimens of historical composition, or rather of political speculation, that we ever encountered. The Abbé enters the congresses of Troppau and Laybach exactly as if he were in the personal presence of the allied despots, with a hundred bows and scrapes, and apologies for intrusion. He is infinitely courteous to the "three gentlemen of Verona" in their individual characters: but it would be doing him the greatest injustice not to observe that the principles of interference with independent states, which they have laid down as essential to the support of absolute monarchy, when those states deem it proper to declare that they will have a representative government, meet with his unqualified reprobation. He is not, however, sufficiently guarded in his prophecies. Old Francis Moore, when he predicts in the learned pages of his Almanack what weather we are to have at Christmas and Midsummer, takes care to protect himself against failure by simply stating that we shall have more or less snow, more or less wind, more or less rain, on or about the time specified, a little before or afterward: he never tells us that we may play with snow-balls in July or make hay in December. It appears that M. de Pradt, unfortunately, did not foresee the hostilities now carrying on against Spain, but confided in the verbal recognition of the new constitution by the northern powers, and in the personal character of the autocrats; while France was so busied with her own internal affairs, that he little thought of her being made the cat's paw in this atrocious project. Like most rapid writers, he is very animated and desultory: like Rhulière, whom he describes, he dilutes rather than depicts: his genius is lively and keen, but he is wanting in profundity, and his touch is deficient in vigor; he dilates into ten pages what a vigorous hand would compress into one.—Yet, with all his faults, he displays so much ardor and eloquence in giving encouragement and support to the principles of freedom, and in advocating the emancipation of the human race from the thralldom of priests and despots, that it would be ungenerous not to allot to his writings the praise which they deserve. What degree of truth there may be in the reproach of Napoleon contained in the anecdote before related, we cannot determine: but, if it ever came to the Abbé's ears, he is of a forgiving

forgiving temper; for in a character, personal as well as political, which he has drawn of the late Emperor, with uncommon labor, where the lights and shadows of the picture are strongly contrasted, the colors harmoniously and richly blended, and the expression of each particular feature is brought out, we observe no sly insidious stroke of the pencil to betray the artist's anger. We must content ourselves with one or two passages:

' Napoleon was intoxicated, but consider the cup of power out of which he drank, and the clouds of incense by which he was surrounded. He placed great confidence in himself, he believed himself superior to error; twenty years of success had swollen his heart and thickened the veil of pride over his eyes, which more or less covers those of every mortal. Napoleon lost his way, but was it not in a forest of laurels? Napoleon was violent, was outrageous, but his passion did not deprive Clytus of existence; his sobriety did not permit the rekindling of the fires of Persepolis; his temperance preserved him from running like Cæsar after Cleopatra, and from losing in the sighs of a whole year the time sufficient to insure the conquest of the universe, which Pharsalia had delivered to him. Those cries have not been heard around his triumphal car, which the soldiers sent forth round that of the Roman conqueror, when the honor of his nuptial bed was in danger; nor have we witnessed that train, by which our throne has been too often surrounded, around that of the man who possessed so many means of satisfying and of introducing his voluptuous inclinations into vogue; he knew how to maintain his court without public scandal, as well as without secret intrigues.'

When he has drawn his outline of Napoleon's public character, the Abbé, who had abundant means of knowing his private virtues and weaknesses, adds the following sketch of them:

' He has been described as a species of man-eater, as a rough and brutal soldier. Nothing can be more false. Napoleon was a tender and indulgent husband; an impassioned father; as a relation, his kindred were fatal to him, he was a sure and lasting friend, and the best of masters; he was turbulent, but did not strike. The stormy cloud was dissipated in a shower of hail, a tempest of words, to which he himself did not attach any importance. I have heard him say, at the conclusion of one of the most violent paroxysms of rage against one of his relations, *Unfortunate creature! he makes me utter what I do not believe, and what I never ought to say.* When the moment was past, he recalled those whom he had sent away, and made advances to those whom he believed he had offended. This I have myself experienced. His appearance was very imposing in the morning, when he issued his orders for the day; but in the evening, fatigue and the negligence of his dress gave him another character. His conversation sparkled with peculiar touches, attracted by its singularity, and by the

the facility with which he found a thousand unexpected relations. A single word was sufficient to unfold his wings ; he then became a giant, whose every stride covered mountains. Napoleon attached the greatest value to secrecy, yet often gave way to the most inconceivable indiscretion, with regard to himself and his projects. He suffered things to escape him, which one would have trembled to hear from any other mouth than his. He denied himself nothing when he once began. In the drawing-room, he was the same as at the head of an army, always in action, in the van, and on the offensive. He was fond of discussion, but, as he had not any time to read, he learned by listening to others, and appropriated what he heard to himself, so as to give it a new form, and make it his own. It was thus he filled one-half of the discussions on the civil code, which he had never heard spoken of before. His powers were immense, and it might be asked, whether he had more mind than genius, which is only another name for mind applied to great things. Not a day passed without his uttering something worthy of observation. No one ever listened more attentively, no one ever testified a more encouraging forbearance at an audience. Every thing might be said to him, but it was necessary to avoid the folly of shewing that he was not understood, for he never resumed it. A word, a trifle decided his opinion of a man ; he was tenacious of those which he had once formed. Talking was his delight. He lost more time in conversation than he employed in action. It was also another power to him, he felt his own strength, and knew that people rarely left him without being subjugated, dazzled, convinced, or conquered ; and this was the reason why he always sought interviews with princes, and all men possessed of power, either in fact or in opinion. He flattered himself, that few could resist the voice of the syren. His manners and his expressions very often did not correspond with the elevation of his rank ; but it is not true, that he ever designedly held the language which has been imputed to him, and particularly towards a sex which always receives, amongst us, every respect, in recompense for the want of power. He never attacked in this manner, he was always on the defensive. He sometimes revenged himself severely, opposing sarcasm to sarcasm ; and which, falling from above, was of great weight. But let those persons who were the objects of them look within themselves, and ascertain their reasons for visiting his palaces ; and ask, whether they did not provoke those retaliations, which they afterwards related in the faubourg St. Germain, as unmannerly attacks ? I was a great deal about the person of Napoleon, and never remarked any thing in him that belonged to the character of a malicious man. He possessed all the qualities and all the defects of a violent and forcible character. He was internally kind, even gay, and sometimes childish. I have seen him repeatedly with his first wife, and the children of his brothers and sisters, give himself up to the lively and animated joy of infancy. When he had a son, there were no limits to this playfulness ; it was necessary sometimes to take him away from him, his joy was so violent. This is not the character of malice. A man who united malice to

so great a power would be a monster. They who can take pleasure in propagating imputations, which are in opposition to the order of nature, can only be enemies, blinded by rage. It very seldom happens that men, who are occupied with great things, are malicious, for it is the peculiar property of little minds. Malice and insignificance may be well reconciled together, but not malice and greatness. The evil Napoleon did was done geometrically, and according to a just or false political calculation, but did not arise from perverse inclination. He several times said to me, *I am not malicious, but woe to him who places himself in the way of the wheels of my political car, when it is once set in motion!*

ART. IX. *Anecdotes, Biographical Sketches, and Memoirs*: collected by Letitia-Matilda Hawkins. Vol. I. 12mo. pp. 351. 9s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c. 1823.

GARRULITY is usually considered as a vice or a weakness in the possessor, and as a nuisance to the auditor, whatever be the years of the parties; so that "boasting youth and narrative old age" are equally condemned. A difference, however, subsists in the two cases, and should therefore be recognized in the censure. *Boasting* must ever be disgusting, and *youth* pre-supposes inexperience, and the two united are intolerable: but *old age* is respectable; and the disposition to be *narrative* is chiefly a desire to disseminate the results of a long acquaintance with life, and to afford gratuitously and easily the knowledge which perhaps has been bought by costly and painful sacrifices. The communications of persons in advanced years, therefore, should be sought with avidity and received with grateful complacency by all those who would wish to "do full well," and "learn to be wise from others' harm;" or who are desirous of gaining the requisite knowledge of past events and departed individuals, from the satisfactory as well as pleasing testimony of eye-witnesses and personal acquaintances. It will be readily understood that we are not here pleading for the *excess* of this talkative disposition, or for its exercise on the part of unqualified assertors of the right: for in this case, and in this alone, the censure cast on "narrative old age" is applicable and justifiable.

From the evidence of the volume before us, it is clear that the fair writer does not belong to the party of "boasting youth;" and while we are in a degree warranted in classing her in the *other* division, we have the less reluctance in asserting an apparently ungalant truth, because we can unite both fact and gallantry in adding that her "narrative" disposition, her

her manner of exercising it, and the character of her communications, are such that her hearers or readers must be pleased and gratified by their attendance at her *conversations*. She is also so great a *bas bleu* that she reads 'but little English;' while she receives, if she does not write, Greek and Latin notes, epigrams, &c. &c.

With some remaining observance, perhaps, of female *etiquette*, Miss Hawkins does not let us into the secret of the exact date of her first acquaintance with this world: but she tells us that her life is now 'of some extent;' and our readers will know how to define this indefinite phrase when we add that she is the daughter of the late Sir John Hawkins, (author of the History of Music and of the Life of Dr. Johnson,) who was born in 1719 and died in 1789. They will conjecture, also, who are the men of letters and of the town, or characters otherwise distinguished, to whom they are here introduced as the associates of Sir John, and consequently the objects of the fair writer's early acquaintance and present reminiscence:—viz. Johnson, Hawkesworth, Horace Walpole, Goldsmith, Bishop Percy, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Dean Tucker, Mr. Tyrrwhit, Bishop Hurd, Dr. Lort, George Stevens, Garrick, Kitty Clive, Drs. Kennicott and Morton, Wilkes, &c. &c. The present volume is mentioned as being only *one* of a family that the lady intends to produce; and Dr. Johnson is incidentally specified as designed to contribute to her future stock. Those who remember Sir John's ponderous work, relative to the great Goliath of literature, may feel somewhat alarmed at this intimation of a renewal of the Hawkinsian hostilities against the Doctor: towards whom Miss H. sufficiently indicates her feelings when she speaks of his 'brutal wit,' and adds, (p. 329.) 'I can truly say it was a severe punishment to me to share in any of my father's visits to him, and that I never heard him say, in any visit, six words that could compensate for the trouble of getting to his den, and the disgust of seeing such squalidness as I saw nowhere else.' Though Johnson's gigantic power was sometimes rudely exerted to "break a butterfly upon the wheel," the opinion here expressed by Miss H. will not do her credit; and her comprehension is surely a little at fault in the next page, when she characterizes the Doctor's speech to Miss Knight, author of "Marcus Flaminius," on her quitting England, as "gross brutality."—"Go, my dear," said he, "for you are too big for an island."—Who does not see that this was meant as a *big compliment*?

Of the celebrated dissenting minister Dr. Foster, whom Pope has immortalized in these lines,

"Let

"Let modest Foster, if he will, excel
Ten metropolitans in preaching well,"

incidental mention is made; and Miss H. relates an anecdote of the picture of a Mr. Morris, who sometimes preached for him, being painted and engraved by mistake as the representation of the Doctor. We believe that no likeness of this amiable man was taken but in one instance, viz. a picture by Smith of Chichester, now in the house in which these lines are written.

A casual note (p. 81.) records a French translation of *Hudibras*, by an English gentleman, Colonel Townley, printed in London so far back as 1757; and which Miss H. says she read many years ago, with surprize at the extraordinary success of so singular an attempt. We do not recollect to have met with the book, and the few lines here extracted from it are not sufficient to enable us to form a judgment on its merit: but the following are far from unfavorable indications:

"In school-divinity as able
As he that hight irrefragable,
A second Thomas, or at once
To name them all, another dunce."

"*Avec succès ce grand génie,
S'exerçoit en théologie,
Comme Thomas d'Aquin, et plus
C'étoit un second Duns Scotus.*"

"This wit was sent him for a token,
But in the carriage crackt and broken,
Like commendation nine-pence crookt,
With "To and from my love," it lookt."

"*L'esprit lui vint, comme un message,
Mais fut fêlé par le voyage
Et faussé, comme on voit l'argent,
Gage d'amour d'un tendre amant.*"

We have lately read much "of and concerning," and by the famous Horace Walpole: but the present volume supplies a variety of additional particulars respecting him which we cannot pass entirely unnoticed, as, from the residence of Sir John Hawkins at Twickenham, Miss H. is enabled to say that she 'knew him well, as a child knows a parent's friends.' She adds; 'the recollection of him, as I recollect him, is so pleasant to me, that I cannot reconcile myself to the contemptuous manner in which his memory has been treated, or believe the general assertion that he was unworthy.

'That Horace Walpole was an atheist, I deny, on the testimony of his own expressions. To speak out, and to leave nothing

to be misunderstood, he believed, I am confident, in a God; and he had an awful sense of his power, and relied on his mercy. I am afraid that beyond this, I must not go in pledging myself for him. I dare not say he paid any respect to revealed religion, or to the important truths it has, from time to time, revealed; but I will venture to say that this, in the time when his mind ~~was~~ ^{was} formed, however justly considered now, was much less thought on than it has been since. When Voltaire and the licentious wits of France were in their glory, the imbibing their principles was thought such a necessary consequence of travelling, that any man of polite life who had been accustomed to pass three months of the year on the Continent, would have been deemed "a disciple of Voltaire," as every one educated at Geneva was supposed to be a republican. Infidelity had, indeed, been the fashion of the time, perhaps I may say from the decline of puritanism. Voltaire said he had learned deism in England; he had been a very apt scholar, and returned the favour by teaching, in a very superior style, what he had been taught. The periodical papers of the earliest date prove to us the state of religion in the time of Addison and Steele.' —

'I have heard Mr. Walpole accused of excessive want of hospitality. This is a deficiency generally arising from a love of money, which he had not. A man who had condemned himself to an almost monkish abstemiousness, could not keep a table for casual visitors: — his visitors were seldom casual. From his correspondence it appears that he had a great resort of guests; but I am much mistaken if his servants were not on board-wages. —

'Of the candour and integrity of Mr. Walpole's natural temper, his letters to his deputy, Mr. Bedford, stand as proof. Of his politeness, I can bear testimony in his kind attention to my mother, who, when we were licensed visitors without form at Strawberry-hill, and when Mr. Walpole was going round the house himself with my father and her, was struck with surprise at seeing two small pictures which had been her brother's. Inadvertently manifesting her recognition of them, Mr. Walpole pressed her to accept them: she gratefully declined the favour, but burst into tears on recollecting where she had been accustomed to see them. Nothing more was said; but the pictures were not in sight when she next visited the collection.' —

'To his father it is known he was a pious son: to his mother's memory he has erected a most beautiful monument. He felt most deeply his niece Lady Waldegrave's misfortune in losing her husband, and had admired most justly her conduct in her first marriage. On a sad catastrophe in his own family, he wrote to my father immediately a letter which I wish I possessed, conjuring him to keep my brothers out of dissipated society, and not at all in the style of one who looked on deviations from right as of little importance. And to this may be added his thorough reprobation of the shamelessness of Wilkes, in his excesses when they met at Paris. His own bitter repentance and his candid contrition after his parting from Gray, show what he was as a friend. As a master,

he was loved by all his domestics ; — a change in his establishment would have excited the wonder and curiosity of all Twickenham ; — and his kindness to Mrs. Clive the actress was a proof of his condescending good nature.' —

' His figure was as has been told, and every one knows, not merely tall, but more properly *long* and slender to excess ; his complexion and particularly his hands, of a most unhealthy paleness. I speak of him before the year 1772. His eyes were remarkably bright and penetrating, very dark and lively : — his voice was not strong, but his tones were extremely pleasant, and if I may so say, highly gentlemanly. I do not remember his common gait ; he always entered a room in that style of affected delicacy which fashion had then made almost natural ; — *chapeau bras* between his hands as if he wished to compress it, or under his arm — knees bent, and feet on tip-toe, as if afraid of a wet floor.

' His dress in visiting was most usually, in summer when I most saw him, a lavender-suit, the waistcoat embroidered with a little silver, or of white silk worked in the tambour, partridge silk stockings, and gold buckles, ruffles and frill generally lace. I remember, when a child, thinking him very much under-dressed if at any time, except in mourning, he wore hemmed cambric. In summer no powder, but his wig combed straight, and showing his very smooth pale forehead, and queued behind : — in winter, powder.

' His facility in parting with any thing out of his garden, before it was in common cultivation, I must not omit — it was sufficient to shame the mean jealousy I have witnessed. He first of any one at Twickenham, had the *Hypericum* called Park-leaf, running wildly over his borders ; — my mother was struck with its beauty, and he ordered his gardener to give it ours immediately, as he had done every thing she or my father wished for. In return, my father had the pleasure of procuring for his collection the Venice glass now in the closet at Strawberry-hill, and well I remember the anxious charge it was to my mother, to whose care every thing was consigned that needed watchfulness.' —

' Of his correspondent, William Cole, I have this anecdote, which bespeaks him to have been little like what might have been expected from him. He was remarkable for what is called a " comfortable assurance." Dining in a party at Cambridge, he took up from the table a gold snuff-box, belonging to the gentleman next to him, and bluntly remarked on its size, saying, " It was big enough to hold the freedom of a corporation." — " Yes," replied the owner, " Mr. Cole ; it would hold any freedom but yours."

From the tuneful disposition of the writer's family, it may be supposed that much musical anecdote occurs in the present volume ; and indeed the notes on this subject are very full, Stanley, Cooke, Miss Barsanti, Boyce, Bartleman, &c. &c. occupying many pages. In speaking of Dr. Cooke, we have an amusing little story of the father of the present Duke of

Leeds, who was a frequent attendant on Dr. Cooke's musical parties.

' His avidity to hear good music well performed led him not only to Dr. Cooke's house, which was in Westminster, and consequently very far from his Grace's residence, but occasionally to the house of a relation by marriage of the Doctor's who had a considerable appointment in the Post-Office in Lombard-Street, and very good apartments there. To meet the Duke, a few *amateurs* were invited, and amongst the rest, the present Chamberlain of London, who, singing at sight, was a very useful member.

' One of these invitations fell on an evening not the most convenient, as Mr. C. was that year Lord Mayor, and on that night was to take possession of the Mansion-House, which is never in order for the reception of its short-leased tenant for some weeks after it becomes vacant. At midnight the city magistrate's carriage came to fetch him home; but the Duke so earnestly pressed his staying a little longer, that he could not refuse, especially as he made his compassion easy as to his servants, by saying, "Send your carriage away, and I will set you down."

' The clock struck again; and his civic Lordship, who had with firmness passed the bottle, began respectfully to remonstrate, when at length his Grace rose, and good-humouredly said, "Well, come along, — I see it will not do; you are too much on your guard for me. Do you recollect we are now sitting on the identical spot where stood the house of Sir Robert Viner, when he filled your present situation, and Charles the Second dined with him? I confess I had some ambition to reduce you to the state in which Sir Robert was, when he so reluctantly parted from his royal guest, and to have sent you to take possession of the Mansion-House as merry; but I see you have out-manceuvred me — so I am at your service."

Of the musician himself Miss H. thus writes :

' He was one of the worthiest and best-tempered men that ever existed; and though at an early period of life he had obtained a very high rank in his profession, he had escaped all the ills connected with music and prosperity. Being rather of a taciturn disposition in general society, or rather, I may say, too modest to enter into conversation unless called on, his peculiar talent for humour was not generally known, but it was genuine and of the best description.

' No one was ever less vain of superior excellence in an art, or rather, less sensible of it; he certainly supposed that every body could do what he did, "if they would but try;" and he would lend his abilities to assist, in the least ostentatious manner. When seated at the organ of Westminster-Abbey, where it will be acknowledged by his many still-existing scholars, no one ever excelled him in accompanying an anthem, he would press every hand that could be useful, into his service; and even at the risk of addressing himself to persons ignorant of the first principles of music, he

would say to any lad who had strolled into the church, and found his way up to the organ, "Young gentleman, can't you lend us a hand here?" To his boys he would say, "Come, come, don't stand idle: put in one hand here, under my arm." —

Dr. Cooke had married early, and was an excellent husband — had a large family, and was a most affectionate parent; so affectionate, as on the early death of a son to be almost alarmingly grieved. His feelings at all times, and in their natural state, were very tender. He would sing his part in the beautiful Scotch song "Farewell to Lochaber," but never could do it without the tears standing in his eyes. His cordiality, though it never led him into imprudence, was such as kept his door almost always open; and many times have I seen him come home from business, when he had been waited for in his dining-parlour and study, and his drawing-room has received him into a circle that has obliged him to make his hasty compliments all round. In the streets he was perpetually stopt; it is impossible to describe the humour with which he would apologize for any delay in giving a lesson, which was, to do him justice, not frequent; — he had a peculiar action of his elbow while he was recovering his breath and his fingers were unconsciously preluding the finest modulations on a keyed-instrument; and with a laugh that indicated some humorous recollection, he would say, "I was just stopt a few times as I came along:" his patience with ignorance, and his liberality of time, more than atoned for five minutes' waiting.

As impossible is it to describe his humour in relating. My father had made interest with him to instruct the son of a very worthy provincial organist; and the tuition commenced. When the shake was to be acquired, the pupil, in his extreme attention, as he proceeded in this two-fingered manœuvre, gradually declined towards the ground on the right hand. As the seat for such a purpose is not generally of the most secure form or dimensions, Dr. Cooke warned the young man to keep steady, saying cheerfully, "Take care, take care;" but still the youth was too apt to be absorbed by his occupation. "At last," said the Doctor, in relating it, "I thought, as I was near at hand in case of any disaster, it might cure him, if for once I let him go; and verily he went on shake, shake, shake, shake, till he and stool and all were close to my feet instead of my elbow."

We must also introduce some of the passages relative to Bartleman:

"I have always wished that those who knew and justly admired Bartleman as a bass-singer had known him, as I did, when a pupil of Dr. Cooke, and in the choir of Westminster-Abbey. Living, as my father did for the sake of enjoying the choral service, very near the Abbey, "Bat," as my mother called him, would sometimes spend the leisure part of the whole day in our house; and his good nature was such, that on my father's bringing out of his library a volume of music, putting it before him, and saying "Bat, will you try if you can sing that for me?" he would

answer,

answer, "Yes, Sir, if I can I will;" — then *sotto voce* he would say to my brothers, to whom perhaps he had the minute before been telling something very ludicrous — as, "how many pancakes some boy had eaten," or some such great event, "I will tell you the rest presently." Then, before the smile was off his countenance, he would clear his voice, and with the sweetness of a lark, would pour forth his tender mellifluous notes. We always knew by the archness of his look, when a long shake was coming. In his natural simplicity, it was an exertion which he esteemed as he would have done any that presents itself in boys' sports; and as if for what boys call "fun," he would hold out to the utmost of an *ad libitum*. But when called upon to sing a solo-part of an anthem, then it was that he most shone and most delighted. I have heard him, times without number, — nay now I seem to hear him, — sing Kent's "Hear my prayer," and Greene's "Acquaint thyself with God," and may I never never forget the impression of these sounds!

'He was fine, I confess, very fine, as a bass-singer; but I have heard as fine a voice — never accompanied by so fine a taste; and this taste, this nice discretion as it may be called, in the use of his powers, was either natural to him or showed itself so early, as to make it appear so; — under Dr. Cooke's tuition it met with every encouragement; and while the state of his voice allowed him to retain his situation in the Abbey, I think it must be acknowledged by all who ever heard him, that excepting the lark, "singing up to heav'n's gate," nothing more melodious ever warbled in the air. Astonished was I, when he came forward with so firm, so grand a *bass-voice*.' —

'Nothing was wanting but the appearance of firm health to entitle his features to commendation; he was fair, with very pretty light hair, which grew wildly, and obeyed every breath of wind; and the composure of his countenance, free from all affectation or distortion, — and, above all, the opening of his mouth when he sang, — would have required the hand of an artist of powers as exquisite as his, to do justice to them.' —

'I can only add with pride and acknowledgment, that in the goodness of his nature, he never forgot where he had spent many of his boyish hours, and that whatever time elapsed without our meeting, he was always on every occasion prompt to show and cordial in expressing the continuance of his regard. Success never altered him, applause never elevated him; and he died, I am confident, as he had lived, beloved beyond the usual degree of love bestowed on those whose excellence, to use Wordsworth's beautiful words respecting longevity, "has no companion."'

It is time, however, for us to lay down this amusing volume, which is closed by a few *Poetic Trifles* from the pen of the lady's brother, Mr. H. Hawkins, in English, Greek, and Latin. As these are only *visitors*, under Miss H.'s wing, we shall not submit them to examination: but we may just *glance* in the last two.

- ‘ On a Lady far advanced in Years, and who was a great Card-player, having married her Gardener,
 - ‘ Trumps ever ruled the charming maid,
Sure all the world must pardon her;
The destinies turn’d up — a spade,
She married John the gardener.’
- ‘ On the Report of an intended Alteration of Westminster-Hall, projected by [William Wyndham] Lord Grenville, which would make it necessary to take off the Roof.
 - ‘ With cedar roof, and stony wall,
Old William Rufus built this hall;
Without a roof, with scarce a wall,
William Unroof-us spoils it all.’

We should have mentioned, p. 80., that *Townley's* translation of *Hudibras* is no doubt the work to which we alluded in our No. for July last, p. 257., under the name of *Townsend*.

ART. X. *Graphical and Literary Illustrations of Fonthill Abbey, Wiltshire*; with Heraldical and Genealogical Notices of the Beckford Family. By John Britton, F.A.S. Fellow of the Royal Society of Literature, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 76. and 10 Plates. Small Paper, 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

FONTHILL Abbey, the late seat of Mr. Beckford, has been for the last two years in particular the object of much attention with the curious, the idle, and the gay, on account of the unusual nature and extraordinary magnificence of the building; as well as of the peculiar taste and habits of its owner, who would not allow it to be publicly visited till its contents were to be exposed for sale. Rumour, therefore, instead of general knowledge, and on the authority of a few privileged persons, rather than with its customary thousand tongues, had hitherto asserted its claims to a high character; and the old saying, “*ignotum omne pro magnifico*,” has perhaps been seldom so warrantably applied as in the present instance, in which the object, now no longer *unknown*, has still been found eminently intitled to admiration. The numbers of persons who flocked to visit it last summer, when it was sold, and who are again at this moment attending the auction of its furniture, curiosities, and library, are prodigious beyond any similar occasion; and it is therefore quite in accordance with “existing circumstances,” and with the gratification of actual inquiry, to send forth a history and description of this attractive building.

Of Mr. Britton, who has furnished us with these seasonable ‘Illustrations,’ our readers are by no means ignorant; since we have often introduced him to them as the author of highly decorated works on architectural antiquities, topography, and art.

art. His present undertaking varies somewhat from his usual line, and yet is not entirely foreign to it: but he acknowledges that he feels himself treading on rather new ground, and has consequently adopted a different style in describing it. That he has by no means failed in his effort, we shall manifest by our quotations: but if Mr. Britton has gone a little out of his way on this occasion, we seem to be still more exceeding *our* province by noticing, in detail, a production which from its nature scarcely comes within our cognizance as literary censors. The public curiosity, however, will form our excuse.

The author enters at large, perhaps *too much* at large, into various circumstances attending the execution of his book, which, after all, are left in obscurity with the reader; and he modestly expresses a degree of dissatisfaction with the final accomplishment of his labors, in which, we imagine, others will not participate. He is not thoroughly pleased with the engravings, and we agree with him that two or three of them are not so highly finished as his illustrative prints generally are: but the others have much beauty; and that they are satisfactory in number and subjects will appear when we enumerate them. The frontispiece, marked as Plate VI., is a beautiful view of the hall, from the octagon. Next is an engraved heraldic title-page, ingeniously designed by the author himself. The printed title contains a very pretty vignette, shewing the Abbey from the end of the western avenue. Then follow a plan of the principal floor, a view of the great hall, tower, &c. from the north-west, a south-west view, a south-east view, a distant view from the south-west, the interior of the octagon, the interior of King Edward's Gallery, a colored print of the south end of St. Michael's Gallery, and another of the window in that gallery.

A description is given in chap. i. of the natural and artificial character of the place and adjacent country, of the old house, park, and scenery, &c. &c.; and in the second we enter the principal parts of the building as it now stands. We are told that,

"The Abbey consists of five great portions or members, each of which contains several subdivisions: 1. the hall:—2. the central tower:—3. the north wing:—4. the eastern portion:—and 5. the south wing. The *entrance-hall*, or grand vestibule, is a large and lofty apartment: it is entered by a spacious door-way, with a pointed arch, and to which are attached a pair of tall folding doors, with a small door inserted. These doors are thirty feet high, divided by ribs or mouldings, studded with nails, and supported by ponderous hinges. The hall measures sixty-eight feet long, by twenty-eight feet wide, and seventy-eight in height. Of this area the stone-stairs occupy a space of sixteen feet

eight inches by thirty feet: area of the octagon is thirty-five feet in diameter by one hundred and twenty-eight feet in height: circular stair-case, twelve feet six inches in diameter, with a large newel in the centre, two feet six inches, containing a chimney-flue. Edward's Gallery is sixteen feet wide; and that of St. Michael thirteen feet seven inches, whilst the length of the whole is more than three hundred feet. The exterior measurements are two hundred and seventy feet from east to west, and three hundred and twelve feet from north to south; the centre-tower is two hundred and seventy-six feet high from the floor to the top of the pinnacles: the new building, to the east, is forty-seven feet in width, by ninety-five feet six inches high to the top of the parapet, whilst the two octagonal turrets are one hundred and twenty feet high by twenty feet in diameter.

Of the principal apartments, we may mention that the great octagonal tower contains four arched recesses, above which are four tall windows, filled with stained glass; that the gallery of Edward III. is occupied by books, cabinets, curious tables, pictures, painted glass, and armorial blazonry; that St. Michael's Gallery contains niches for books, and cabinets, and has five windows to the west, three bay windows to the east, and one to the south, all ornamented with painted glass of armorial bearings, historical figures, &c.; and that two drawing-rooms contain also book-cases, cabinets, and rich furniture; besides innumerable other rooms, bed-chambers, &c.

* North of the octagonal saloon is a long narrow room, divided into three compartments, and respectively called the *Gallery of Edward III.*: the vaulted corridor, and the *sanctuary, or oratory*. The first, or Edward's Gallery, is so named from a series of splendid armorial emblazonments, which mark the numerous descents of Mr. Beckford and Lady Margaret Gordon from that monarch. — A full-length portrait of Edward the Third, copied from one at Windsor, and seventy-two emblazoned shields round the frieze, of knights companions of the most noble order of the Garter, and from whom Mr. Beckford and his lady are lineally descended, are parts of the adornments of this splendid gallery. In the recesses of the eastern wall are six bookcases, and in the centre a fine alabaster chimney-piece; opposite to, and corresponding with which are seven pointed windows, with stained glass. A flowered red damask is hung against the walls; purple and scarlet cloth adorn the windows and recesses, whilst the ceiling is ornamented with numerous pannels and mouldings, intersecting each other in rich and picturesque confusion. On each side of the fire-place is a cabinet, carved in imitation of the style of the Elizabethan age, in which singularity if not beauty of design is as conspicuous as extreme labour and excellence of execution. A series of black tables and candelabras is ranged on the side of the room, between the windows, whilst an interesting and costly mosaic table, formed

formed of the most precious agates and marbles, is shown in the centre. This splendid table consists of a large slab, nine feet by four feet six inches, placed on a carved oak stand, or frame of four uprights, with as many feet. The slab, called "*pietra commessa*," is ornamented with an oval compartment in the centre, of magnificent oriental onyx, surrounded by specimens of rare and beautiful jaspers and breccia; "and with a broad border of bold arabesque, of various costly and uncommon marbles, and edged with variegated marble." This slab formerly belonged to the Borghese Palace in Rome.

The *Corridor*, or approach to the oratory, is a continuation of the Edward Gallery, and is designed to produce a solemn and gloomy effect. The ceiling is arched over, and, with the sides, covered with numerous gilt and painted ribs and pannels. Three perforated bronze doors, on each side, communicate with mysterious recesses, somewhat resembling monastic confessionals. A doorway from the eastern recess leads to the Lancaster staircase-tower, which forms one approach to an upper gallery, and leads to bedrooms in the tower above. Around the frieze of the corridor are thirty-eight emblazoned shields, marking Mr. Beckford's and his late consort's descents from King Edward I. through the house of Butler. —

North of the corridor is a square apartment called the *Sanctuary*, with a flat ceiling, having several divisions of fan groining, with gilt pendants. This room is peculiarly beautiful and impressive: it prepares the eye and mind to approach and appreciate the *Oratory* at the northern extremity of the gallery. This is formed of five sides of an octagon, with gilt columns at the angles, from which spring a succession of fan-shaped ribs, with a circular compartment in the centre. A richly chased golden lamp is suspended from this. At the east end rises an altar, spread with a Persian carpet of figured silk; on which stands a marble statue of St. Anthony of Padua, executed by Rossi with admirable taste and unaffected simplicity. On each side of the altar are placed lofty candelabras, supporting tapers of extraordinary size; whilst two small lancet-windows, filled with stained glass, admit a little glimmering many-coloured light. The union of beauty and solemnity, of softness, repose, and harmony, which pervade this part of the building, cannot be adequately described; nor can it scarcely be imagined by those visitors who have seen it only in its days of bustle and gaiety. When dimly illumined by the rays of its own simply elegant lamp, which

"through the room
Teach light to counterfeit a gloom;"

and by the admission of variegated gleams from the small windows, alternately throwing vivid touches of brightness and deep shadow on the projections and recesses of the statue, and the gilt mouldings;—when the windows of the adjoining gallery are shrouded by their crimson, purple, and gold draperies, and the soft solemn organ sends its mellow tones through the echoing galleries,

ries, whilst the odours of eastern perfumes contribute their fragrance to feast another sense, it is more easy to fancy than to depict the seraphic influence of such a scene.

With regard to the *history* of the building, we are told that Mr. Beckford, having pulled down the splendid mansion which had been erected by his father, laid the foundation of the present abbey in 1795.

‘Determined to produce an edifice uncommon in design, and adorn it with splendour; knowing and properly appreciating the insatiable curiosity of the English, and that no common means would restrain it from breaking in upon domestic privacy, and encroaching on the regular occupation of artificers and workmen, Mr. Beckford commenced his works by raising a high wall around a tract of land above six miles in extent. This was guarded by projecting railing on the top, in the manner of *chevaux de frise*, and thus constituted a sort of fortified barrier. Large and strong gates, or rather double gates, were provided in this wall, at the different roads of entrance to the interior. At these gates were stationed persons who had strict and rigid orders not to admit a stranger. A vast number of mechanics and labourers were employed to advance the works with rapidity. The neighbouring villages were thronged with inhabitants, and a new village, or hamlet, was built to accommodate some of the new settlers. All around was activity and energy: whilst the growing works of the edifice, as the scaffolding and walls were raised above the surrounding trees, excited the curiosity and speculations of the passing traveller, as well as the inhabitants of the neighbourhood. It was generally inferred that something wonderful was in progress; for as the inclosed grounds were carefully guarded against the admission of strangers, these naturally became the more inquisitive, and were the more vague, extravagant, and marvellous in their inferences and reports. To enhance this surprise, and afford new scope for this spirit of speculation, a novel scene was presented in the winter of 1800: during the dark and inclement season of November and December in that year, it is related that nearly five hundred men were successively employed night and day to expedite the works: and in the darksome and dreary nights of those months, they prosecuted their labours by torch and lamp light. The prospect of an illuminated edifice, as seen from a distance, with flitting lights and busy workmen, must have produced a singular and mysterious effect. This event was “harvest-time” to the men employed; for if they worked hard they were amply repaid; and it is an unanswerable maxim that “reward sweetens labour.”

‘The cause of this most extraordinary exertion and activity was a visit of Lord Nelson, with Sir William, Lady Hamilton, &c, to Fonthill. The “Hero of the Nile,” as he was then called, and Lady Hamilton, had excited great notoriety: the one by his courage, naval skill, and conquests, and the other by her personal attractions and abilities. Mr. Beckford having invited them, with several other friends, to his splendid seat, first received and then treated

treated them in an extraordinary manner ; for the accomplished author of *Vathek* had determined to exemplify by practical illustration some of the theories of that original romance. If he had not five wings to his palace, or " five other palaces, for the particular gratification of each of the senses," he had concentrated within his own walls, and around his mansion, the most delightful blandishments of art, the fascinations of talent, and the choicest luxuries for the palate : besides the most rare and delicious viands, fruits, and wines, with odoriferous plants, flowers, and essences, some of the first vocal and instrumental performers were engaged, a military band was provided, the Fonthill volunteers were prepared and disciplined, the house was fitted up with increased splendour, and on the 20th of December, 1800, a large cavalcade was introduced to the mansion. In passing through Salisbury Lord Nelson was escorted into and out of that city by the yeoman cavalry, and was presented with the freedom of Sarum by the Mayor and Corporation in their council-house assembled. The festivities at Fonthill continued for some days, and the company consisted of persons of distinguished talents and qualifications. The abbey, or monastic fête, on the evening of the twenty-third, was the most remarkable period of this gala. A procession of carriages, horses, soldiers, &c. moved from the old house to the abbey in the evening. Flambeaux, torches, and many thousand lamps were distributed on the sides of the road among the woods ; whilst bands of music and files of soldiers were stationed in different places to greet and charm the company as they passed. Every thing, indeed, was provided to steal upon the senses, to dazzle the eye, and to bewilder the fancy. After passing through a long, winding, umbrageous avenue — after hearing the sounds of distant, near, and varied instruments, with their reverberations among the woods and dells, and contemplating the vivid and solemn effects of bright flitting lights and deep shadows, the company was conducted to the Abbey, where a new, impressive, and mystical scene, or succession of scenes, were presented. For an account of this, I cannot do better than quote a letter, written at the time : — " After entering a groined Gothic hall, through a double line of soldiers, the parties were received in the great saloon, called the Cardinal's Parlour, furnished with rich tapestries, long curtains of purple damask before the arched windows, ebony tables and chairs studded with ivory, of various but antique fashion ; the whole room in the noblest style of monastic ornament, and illuminated by lights on silver sconces. At the moment of entrance they sat down at a long table, occupying nearly the whole length of the room (fifty-three feet), to a superb dinner, served in one long line of enormous silver dishes, in the substantial costume of the antient abbeys, unmixed with the refinements of modern cookery. The table and sideboard glittered with piles of plate, and a profusion of lights, not to mention a blazing Christmas fire of cedar, and the cones of pine, which united to increase the splendour and to improve the *coup-d'œil* of the room. It is needless to say that the highest satisfaction and good humour prevailed, mingled with sentiments

timents of admiration at the grandeur and originality of the entertainment. Dinner being ended, the company moved up stairs to the other finished apartments of the Abbey. The staircase was lighted by certain mysterious living figures, at different intervals, dressed in hooded gowns, and standing with large wax torches in their hands. A magnificent room, hung with yellow damask, and decorated with cabinets of the most precious japan, received the assembly. It was impossible not to be struck, among other objects, with its credences (or antique buffets,) exhibiting much treasure of wrought plate, cups, vases, and ewers of solid gold. It was from this room that they passed into the library, fitted up with the same appropriate taste. The library opens by a large Gothic screen into the gallery, which when finished will be more than two hundred and seventy feet long. About half this length is now fitted up and furnished in the most impressive monastic style. A superb shrine, with a beautiful statue of St. Anthony in marble and alabaster, the work of Rossi, placed upon it, with reliquaries studded with brilliants of immense value, the whole illuminated with a grand display of wax-lights, on candlesticks and candelabras of massive silver, gilt, exhibited a scene at once strikingly splendid and awfully magnificent. The long series of lights on either side of the room, resting on stands of ebony, enriched with gold, and those on the shrine all multiplied and reflected in the great oriel opposite from its spacious squares of plate-glass, while the whole reflection narrowed into an endless perspective as it receded from the eye, produced a singular and magic effect.

"As the company entered the gallery a solemn music struck the ear from some invisible quarter, as if from behind the screen of scarlet-curtains which backed the shrine, or from its canopy above, and suggested ideas of a religious service; ideas which, associated as they were with so many appropriate objects addressed to the eye, recalled the grand chapel-scenes and ceremonies of our antient Catholic times. After the scenic representation a collation was presented in the library, consisting of various sorts of confectionary, served in gold baskets, with spiced wines, &c. —

"On leaving this strange nocturnal scene of vast buildings and extensive forest, now rendered dimly and partially visible by the declining lights of lamps and torches, and the twinkling of a few scattered stars in a clouded sky, the company seemed, as soon as they had passed the sacred boundary of the great wall, as if waking from a dream, or just freed from the influence of some magic spell."

"If the Abbey of Fonthill was susceptible of such effects in an early stage of its erection, it must now be greatly enhanced in capability and consequence; for it is at least four times larger than it was at the time of that fête."

The scenery of the domain is stated to be much diversified, picturesque, beautiful, and romantic; presenting alternations

* *Gentleman's Magazine*, vol. lxxi. p. 297, &c. This account was probably written by Mr. Tresham, R. A.

of hill and dale, terraces and vallies, wood and lawn, fugged wilderness and dressed parterres; with a sort of mountain lake, conical knolls or hills, narrow glens, steep ridges, &c.

Of the library, collected by Mr. Beckford, which is now selling, and of which such great reports have been made, Mr. Britton says it is 'impossible for him to do justice to its peculiar character in the present volume.'

In Clarke's "*Repertorium Bibliographicum*," 8vo. 1819, some of its choicest rarities are specified. Among these are the following, "An extensive Series of Spanish and Portuguese Chronicles," "Some of the rarest *Facetiae*, History, Poetry, &c. in all languages, and in the most beautiful condition." Among the MSS. are many inestimable volumes "formerly in the possession of Shah-Aulum; they exhibit an undoubted assemblage of portraits of illustrious persons, representations of ceremonies, and perspective views." In works of travels this collection may be said to stand almost unrivalled: but however curious and valuable in this or other branches of literature, the most interesting part of its contents are the manuscript-annotations with which almost every volume is enriched. The collector of the Fonthill library is not only an incessant reader, but a thinker and a writer.

Chap. iii. is allotted to a history of the Beckford family, with genealogical tables, in addition to others before given. For the general reader, Mr. Britton has probably been too liberal of pedigrees: but the family and the work, the building and its (late) owner's varied alliances, are so intimately connected as to be inseparable.

We can only add our thanks to the author for having treated us with a thorough inspection of this celebrated place, without giving us the trouble of moving from our chairs.

ART. XL *Essays, Physiological and Practical.* By James Carson, M.D. Liverpool. 8vo. pp. 65. Underwoods. 1822.

WE are here presented with three essays on the mechanical physiology of the lungs; of which, one has been already published in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, another in those of the Medico-Chirurgical Society, and the third and last, which partakes more of a practical character, now appears in print for the first time. In his "*Inquiry into the Causes of the Motion of the Blood*," Dr. Carson developed, in a very ingenious and satisfactory manner, the effects of the elasticity of the lungs; and in the first of the essays before us he has endeavored to measure the degree of this property. No doubt it varies much in different animals, and perhaps to a certain extent in the same animal

animal at separate times, according to its age and state of health: but the experiments of Dr. C. have served to prove that the elasticity of the lungs is greater than most persons, and even he himself, had anticipated. 'In calves, sheep, and in large dogs, the resiliency of the lungs was found to be balanced by a column of water varying in height from one foot to a foot and a half; and in rabbits and cats, by a column of water varying in height from six to ten inches.'

In his second essay, the author has considered the subject of the vacuity of the arteries after death; and he has endeavored, by various experiments, to shew that this state is the effect 'chiefly of the elasticity of the lungs in combination with that of the arterial canals.' How the elastic power of the arteries should have any effect in causing them to be found empty after death, we do not perceive: but we certainly agree with the author in thinking that the resilience of the lungs must greatly favor the occurrence of that state, in the same manner as it aids the motion of the blood in the veins. With a view to elucidate the causes of the vacuity of the arteries in the dead body, Dr. Carson killed some animals by dividing the spinal marrow, and others by opening the diaphragm on both sides, so as to produce an immediate collapse of the lungs. In those which had been killed by *pithing*, the veins were found swoln, the arteries empty, and the viscera of their usual paleness: but in those in which death had been produced by a sudden collapse of the lungs, the capillaries were every where highly injected, the veins contained a less quantity of blood than in the other case, and a small cylinder of coagulated blood was found in each of the larger arteries. It would appear, therefore, that in animals killed by sudden collapse of the lungs, the arteries are less empty, and the capillaries much more injected, than in those which are killed by *pithing*: but it remains to be proved what share the sudden destruction of nervous energy in the latter case, and the continued struggles of the animal in the former, had in producing these appearances. Dr. C., who in this publication seems disposed to draw "good from every thing," anticipates the opening of a wide field of discovery from his mode of destroying animals by sudden '*collapse* of the lungs.'

'According to the Harveian doctrine,' he says, 'the blood must flow from the minute and ultimate branches of the arteries into the corresponding branches of the veins. But the manner in which the vessels form the communication necessary for this purpose is still a desideratum in medical science; and, as, in all the ordinary modes of death, these vessels are always deprived of their contents; and, as in these circumstances, the knife of the anatomist and the microscope, though guided by all the coloring

ings which the art of injecting could supply, have been found incapable of bringing this union into view, it was likely to remain so. But the examination of animals, in which the smallest vessels contain at least their full proportion of the red blood that flowed in them in the living body, seems to hold forth the hope of some satisfactory knowledge being attainable in this dark and mysterious part of physiology. And it is evident that, without a knowledge of the manner in which the venous and arterial capillaries communicate, and of the powers by which the blood is moved through these capillaries, the momentous question, What is the cause of inflammation, and, of course, of the majority of diseases affecting the animal frame? must now be involved in darkness.

We cannot see any prospect of such results from Dr. C.'s experiments; for he himself acknowledges, that he could not distinguish the veins from the arteries in the parts which were found so highly injected. Besides, he mistakes in supposing that the subject is now involved in such thick darkness; for we have a perfect recollection of having seen vascular preparations so happily successful, that the injection had distinctly returned by the veins, after having separated from its coloring ingredient.

Essay iii. is one which our high opinion of the ingenuity and talents of the author leads us to regret that he has published. Professor Richeraud, after having detailed the operation in which, with unexampled boldness and rare dexterity, he cut out a portion of the ribs and *pleura*, laying bare the *pericardium* and left lung, gravely proposed to cure dropsy of the *pericardium* by injecting its cavity as we do the *tumors vaginalis* in hydrocele; — and Dr. Carson, with an extravagance of fancy equally wild, has proposed to cure pulmonary consumption by opening the cavity of the chest, first on one side and then on the other: in this manner suffering the lung of the side opened to collapse, and the ulcers which it may contain to heal. The proposal filled us with astonishment: but, when we saw it stated by Dr. Williams “that Dr. Carson had in a single instance reduced his hypothesis to practice, by sanctioning the operation on a consumptive patient in Liverpool,” (*Medical and Physical Journal* for June, 1823, p. 480.) we felt shocked at the temerity of the operator, and the delusion of the physician. A little consideration might have saved the author from adopting such unfounded practical views; which, if pursued, will lead in most instances to fatal results. It must have been known to Dr. Carson that, in the great proportion of phthisical cases, adhesions of the *pleura* exist, which will necessarily prevent the success of any attempt to induce collapse of the lungs; and that wounds penetrating the cavity of the chest, even in healthy persons, rarely fail to cause

cause high inflammation, and sometimes death. It must also have been known to him, that many cases are on record in which the bursting of *vomica* has been followed by a complete cure, without any opening having been made in the chest. It must, moreover, have been known to him that, in tubercular phthisis, the lungs after death exhibit tubercles in every varying stage of advancement, so as wholly to preclude the application of his proposal. Finally, it must have been well known to him that rest is very inadequate to effect the cure of external ulcers, and more especially of those which arise from a stramous taint. An attention to all these facts, of which Dr. C. could not have been ignorant, ought to have convinced him of the complete futility of his proposed mode of cure.

Since the publication of these essays, another physician of Liverpool, Dr. Williams, (already mentioned,) has turned his attention to the subject of the collapse of the lungs by puncturing the *pleura*, and has published an account of his experiments in a late number of the Medical and Physical Journal, to which we have just referred. The experiments of his predecessor in this field are sufficiently painful to a humane mind, but these last are truly lacerating to the feelings; and we regret to say that we have not been able to discover any fruit which has been gathered from them, at all compensating for the amount of animal suffering which they inflicted. "To close the scene," says Dr. Williams, "the knife was plunged into the heart, with a determination never to perform another experiment on a living animal: to which I was induced by my anxiety to solve an important practical problem." (Medical and Physical Journal, No. 292., p. 485.)

It appears from Dr. W.'s experiments, that Dr. Carson was deceived in supposing that a free and uninterrupted admission of air into the cavity of each *pleura* necessarily proves speedily fatal; for, if the animal on whom this injury has been inflicted, be freely permitted to exert his muscles of respiration, that process, Dr. W. has found, may be carried on, and even a cure of the wounds be effected. Dr. Williams seems disposed to ascribe this to "some peculiar motive-power possessed by the lungs;" but it is obvious to us that the continuance of respiration under such circumstances is simply the effect of powerful expiratory efforts, by which the lungs are compressed, and a portion of air forced out of them which in ordinary respiration would have remained in their tubes and cells. It appears that, in Dr. Carson's experiments, the ribs were so secured as to render the exertion of this new respiratory force impossible; and hence the speedy death of the animal.

animal. Dr. Williams denies that the lungs collapse from the admission of air into the cavities of the *pleura*, provided that the animal is allowed the unconfined use of his respiratory organs: but we have it on his own authority that, in his third experiment, the air rushed in through the wound in the diaphragm first on one side and then on the other, which we cannot explain unless by supposing that the lungs successively collapsed. Dr. W. conceives himself warranted in concluding from one experiment on a living animal, and from the inspection of the lungs of a dog that had been hanged and had the trachea secured, "that a sound lung never fills the bag of the *pleura* daring ordinary respiration." (Medical and Physical Journal, p. 486.) We shall not stop to point out the anatomical inaccuracy of this language; and we freely concede to him that the opposite surfaces of the *pleura* are not always in contact, because in inspiration the lung must have time to expand, which of course will often produce a slight temporary vacuum:—but we deny that any satisfactory evidence has been adduced to prove that the costal and pulmonary *pleura* of a sound lung are never, in ordinary respiration, as closely applied to each other as the natural exhalation from that membrane will permit.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1823.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 12. *The Italian Wife*; a Tragedy. 8vo. pp. 122. Blackwood, Edinburgh; Cadell, London. 1823.

This production is indeed, as the anonymous author informs us, an imitation founded on 'the romantic old English tale of *Roman and Woodstock*. The other incidents are purely machinery; although many stories, of a description not very dissimilar, are to be found scattered through the obscure annals of the petty Italian principalities.' He likewise very candidly states that 'with respect to the unities of time and place, he has been as careless as he could. If, in the former, he has approached in some degree towards that *improbable probability* in which modern criticism delights, it was by chance rather than by design that he did so. These liberties, together with some others, both of language and versification, he trusts may be forgiven, as they were taken—freely.'

We wish that we could say that this was really the full amount of the liberties which the author has taken, serious as they are: but he might, with an equal degree of justice, have added to them

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an entire failure in the characters and story, — in the interest and the sort of ‘improbable probability’ of the whole piece. We do not, however, assert that it does not approach near to Mr. Addison’s tragic performance on the same subject; for, if it be not quite so studied and classical, to a degree of tameness, it is certainly more free and spirited. There is something in the vivacity of modern dramatic composition, which is superior to that of Addison and to those of Addison’s age; though we possess but a very indifferent example of it in the ‘Italian Wife.’ Yet, while we must consider this production *altogether* as a failure, some detached passages not merely rise above mediocrity, but really discover a strong poetic feeling.

Of this description, we shall notice the following stanzas from a Troubadour character, who is introduced into the Duke’s festal hall by an enemy, to play on the feelings of the Prince his son.

‘CANZONET.

“ Say not he loves the rose the best,
Because it twines his forehead fair,
In seeming smiles and pleasure drest,
‘Mid lighted halls and festal glare;
His bosom hides his true love’s hair;
He dares not shew it in his crest;
Oh! say not, then, because ‘tis there,
That he must love the rose the best.

“ Ah! no; he loves the lily best,
Far, in the shade, from jealous eyes;
He sees with joy the crimson west,
When bliss is born and day-light dies;
For to the conscious grove he hies,
That long his flow’ret hath possess’d,
And softly there, in secret sighs —
Ah! yes; he loves the lily best.”

Art. 13. *The Maid’s Revenge*, and a Summer Evening’s Tale; with other Poems. By Cheviot Ticheburn. 8vo. pp. 62. Whittakers. 1823.

The name of Cheviot Tichéburn may easily be imagined to be fictitious: but, if we mistake not, these poems proceed from the same source with the “December Tales” which we lately noticed. (Number for August.) Should our conjecture be correct, we must congratulate the writer on his change of style; for without doubt the present composition is superior to that which we have just mentioned.

‘Candid censure, and modest praise,’ says the author in his preface, ‘best become the gravity of the critic.’ Now, as we bestowed a little of the former on the “December Tales,” we shall expend a portion of the latter on the poems before us. We cannot, indeed, assign to them more than a moderate share of panegyric, though they afford some promise of better things: but, while they are not devoid of poetical spirit and expression, they are wanting in simplicity. We would caution Mr. Cheviot Ticheburn to beware of his brother-mask Mr. Barry Cornwall, who

is a most dangerous model for a young poet; and in one passage of 'The Maid's Revenge' we are strongly reminded of Mr. C. We have 'the hapless Arethuse,' and 'Ocean and the scaly sea-god's green,' and pale Narcissus the fond boy, and 'fair Leda's bird,' all savouring strongly of that writer. We could carp, if so inclined, at some of this poet's lines; as, for instance, when he talks of

— 'first love's indissoluble tether,'

were it not that we have arrived at the end of our own. Why does Mr. T. write *again* for *again*?

Art. 14. *Alfred*; a Romance in Rhyme. By R. Payne Knight. 8vo. pp. 360. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

We had imagined that Mr. Payne Knight had become a *miles emeritus* in the field of literature, and had availed himself of the privilege of a veteran to lay aside his well-worn pen, when suddenly we find him making an onslaught on the public in 'a Romance,' or rather epic, in twelve books! A love of literary employment, indeed, appears to be the last passion of those who have ever devoted themselves to its fascination; and, when other objects and impulses have long passed away, its influence remains not only undiminished, but more powerful from the secession of pleasures which might at one time have been considered as of higher attraction. 'In this last stage of the author's existence,' says Mr. Knight in his preface, 'the amusement of intellectual exertion is the only source of happiness left: the organs of sense being too much blunted, their objects become too stale, and the prospects of futurity too limited in this world, to afford any real or reasonable gratification in the indulgence of pleasure, the visions of hope, or the speculations of ambition.'

In this preface are many very strong and some very just remarks. The greater portion of it is devoted to strictures on Lord Byron, and on certain religious opinions to which he has shewn himself adverse; with the addition, also, of some very energetic censures on the character of Bonaparte. Mr. K. attempts to exculpate Lord Byron from the accusation of irreligion in the publication of "*Cain*," while he likewise makes some spirited and excellent observations on religious persecution; and the sentence, with which the remarks on the character of Napoleon concludes, is as well worth the attention of absolute sovereigns as of leaders of revolutions. 'His fate, contrasted with that of George Washington, may afford a most salutary lesson to all future leaders of revolutions, by teaching them that the surest means of freedom and happiness to themselves are the freedom and happiness of others; and thus rendering passions the most base and selfish in their motives most virtuous and beneficent in their ends.'

On the poem itself we shall not dwell: for, though it is written with a considerable degree of measured elegance, it is by no means in the style which at the present day is calculated to conciliate popular favor; being at once too prolix and too smoothly regular to please the impatient ear of the modern public. In

fact, we meet with but little poetry of the higher range in 'Alfred,' though much which displays a polished taste and an attentive study of our best poets.

We give a short specimen of the versification. Alfred, flying from his enemies in the disguise of a minstrel, reaches the Cambrian shore, and seeks some 'lowly dwelling' where 'safe awhile he might repose his head;' and here he meets the Princess Elsintha.

' Beneath a rock amid some tufted trees,
At length a solitary cot he sees;
And hark! as now the path conducts him near,
Sweet music gently vibrates on his ear.
A damsel's voice it seems, who, while she sings,
With skilful fingers strikes the accordant strings;
Amazed he hears the language and the tone,
For both were Saxon, and the words his own;—
Words which, when blithe in youth his harp he strung,
Amid the smiles of peace, he oft had sung.

' Near and more near, with silent steps he drew,
Till through the trees the warbler met his view;
Close by the cot, beneath the mingled shade,
Of vines and woodbines, sat a lovely maid;
A peasant's humble weeds her form invest,
But princely dignity her mien exprest;
Though coarse and simple, neat was her attire;
With taste her flying fingers touch'd the lyre;
Exalted sentiment and native grace,
Beam'd in each feature of her beauteous face;
Her head a simple fillet loosely bound,
Her curling tresses wildly wanton'd round,
In auburn ringlets on her shoulders play'd,
Or heedless o'er her snowy bosom stray'd.
Serenely melancholy flow'd the song,
The echoing rocks each plaintive note prolong;
Whose sweetly lingering cadence seemed t' invite,
The slow descending silence of the night.

' Hid in the covert of the adjoining wood,
Enraptured and amazed the monarch stood;
And, as her beauteous face he oft reviews,
Memory her image in his mind renews:
He thought in happier days he had somewhere seen
Those lovely features and that graceful mien;
He thought he had somewhere heard that tuneful tongue,
Chaunt in less plaintive mood the tender song;
Yet still no certain image thought supplies,
But doubts on doubts in vague conjectures rise:
Unceasing wars and troubles had effaced
Each mild impression happier scenes had traced.
' Perplex'd he stands, and listens to the sound,
Then tunes his harp, and rests it on the ground;
Strikes,

Strikes, with a master's hand, the trembling strings,
 And bids them vibrate to the notes she sings.
 Sudden she rose, and moving toward the trees,
 The royal minstrel's form majestic sees ;
 Silent she stops, entranced in wild surprise,
 Pale grew her cheeks, amazement fix'd her eyes.

“ What awful vision, — what delusive shade,”
 At length she cried, “ thus haunts this secret glade ?
 Yet should I know the features of that face,
 Its dignity benign — its manly grace ;
 That form before hath to my eyes appear'd,
 Those notes before, in happier days, I've heard.
 Say, do I wake ? or do my senses stray,
 Of long calamity and grief the prey ?
 No ! thou art Alfred, or some fleeting shade
 Comes in those lineaments divine array'd ;
 Some sainted spirit from yon azure skies,
 To charm my ears and fascinate my eyes.”

“ Thou too,” the king replies, “ hast felt the frown
 Of adverse fate, and better days hast known ;
 Thy mien, thy accent, and thy looks reveal,
 What this coarse garb and humble roof conceal.
 Where have I seen that beauteous face before ?
 Where have I heard that voice its music pour ?
 Ah ! now I know ; each grace, each charm renews
 Remembrance past, and Mercia's princess shews.
 Has then the storm, which o'er our country pours
 Its wasteful torrents, and each realm devours,
 E'en on Elsintha's unresisting head
 Its fierce inevitable fury sped ?
 Ah ! say, what brought thee to this low retreat ? —
 How didst thou fly from Mercia's distant seat ?
 Where are thy father and thy brother fled ?
 Ah ! why those tears ? — alas ! then are they dead ?”

“ They both are dead,” the sorrowing maid replies,
 While pious tears fast trickled from her eyes.
 “ Both are released from this sad world of woe,
 Nor more its transitory evils know.
 I — only I — of Mercia's race am left,
 An exiled orphan, of each friend bereft.
 Long is the dismal tale : but since the day
 Now faintly sheds its last departing ray,
 Here in this shelter'd cot thou mayst repose,
 And hear the story of Elsintha's woes.
 Here, unmolested and unknown, I share
 The gains and labours of an aged pair ;
 Who, with the balm of mild parental love,
 To soothe and heal my sorrows long have strove ;
 Who, sprung from Saxon blood, like us have known,
 Domestic griefs and miseries of their own :

And learn'd each gentle sympathy to blend,
Of parent, guardian, comforter, and friend."

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 15. *A Treatise on the Utility of Sanguisuction, or Leech-bleeding, in the Treatment of a great Variety of Diseases; including the Opinions of eminent Practitioners, ancient and modern; with Instructions for the Process of Leeching; and an Appendix, delineating the characteristic Distinction of true Leeches, with Directions for their Management and Preservation.* By REES PRICE, M.D., Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, and formerly Surgeon in the Navy. 12mo. pp. 149. 3s. 6d. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall. 1822.

The acknowledged utility and very general employment of sanguisuction by leeches are such, that we opened the small work of Dr. Price with little expectation of finding in it either instruction or amusement. Perhaps, indeed, such a treatise was not urgently wanted: yet we feel indebted to the author for his ample enumeration of those diseases in which *leeching* will prove beneficial, for the directions which he has given as to the application and management of these *insects*, (as he has been pleased to term them,) and for the most important particulars of their natural history.

In all cases of local inflammation, unaccompanied by fever, leeches may be applied with much benefit; and in extensive inflammatory disease, where the system strongly sympathizes, and where general blood-letting can no longer be safely repeated, the application of leeches often proves highly valuable. When considering the diseases in which *leeching* is useful, Dr. P. very judiciously mentions also the other remedies which must be employed at the same time; and he usually premises a brief account of the diseases themselves. His faith in this practice, however, is considerably greater than that of most medical men; and hence he has been led to recommend it where, we humbly conceive, its adoption would occasion loss of time, and imminent hazard of the patient's life. In strangulated hernia, for instance, and in puerperal fever, both of which are admitted by Dr. P. into his catalogue of diseases to be treated by leeches, the short period during which active measures may be useful must not be consumed in such a manner. Of leeching in goat, which he recommends, we have no experience, yet we are disposed to think favorably of it: but in erysipelas, on the other hand, we have repeatedly seen it adopted, and rarely without injurious consequences.

Dr. Price has said, under the head of Cancer of the Uterus, 'before ulceration of the uterus has become extensive, the repeated application of leeches over the lower part of the abdomen will frequently subdue the disease, and prevent the fatal consequences resulting therefrom.' (P. 83.) How rejoiced we shall be if this assertion prove correct! but we greatly fear that it has proceeded not so much from the careful observation of facts, as from the partiality of the author for his favorite mode of treatment. We have

have never seen true schirrus of the mamma removed, or even perceptibly affected, by the most persevering employment of leeches: but we have known many women reduced to a state of alarming debility by the adoption of this practice.

Were we disposed to indulge in criticism, we could point out several inaccuracies of language, and some errors in the nosological denomination of diseases, into which the author has fallen: but we prefer to close our observations by thanking him for his small volume; which contains much information, drawn from different sources. We have no hesitation in recommending it, therefore, to the attention of general practitioners, and persons commencing their professional career, who will find it an useful guide in the employment and management of leeches.

Art. 16. *Practical Observations on certain Affections of the Head, commonly called Head-achs; with a View to their Elucidation, Prevention, and Cure.* To which is added, a Treatise on Indigestion. Second Edition, much enlarged. By James Farmer, M.D.C.S., &c. 12mo. pp. 183. 5s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1822.

Mr. Farmer has made a judicious choice in selecting head-ach and indigestion as the subjects of his small work; for few persons have attained middle age without suffering from both of these complaints; and none, even the most uninformed, can be ignorant that head-ach is the precursory symptom of some of the most fatal diseases to which we are liable. We do not feel surprised, therefore, that a work on such subjects addressed to the general public, and executed with the neatness which characterizes the treatise before us, should have obtained a ready sale; which the author, in his preface to the present edition, states to have been the case with this publication.

The division of head-achs, which Mr. F. has adopted, is sufficiently minute for the purposes of a popular work. His species are the bilious or sick head-ach, the nervous, the rheumatic, and the plethoric; and, under each of these titles, he has mentioned such remedies as may be safely placed in the hands of those who are not of the medical profession: leaving more powerful means, and more complicated modes of treatment, for the advice of the practitioner. Mr. F., however, has not always observed this wise caution, for he has spoken repeatedly of the administration of mercury, and has even given English formulæ for its exhibition. It was not to be expected that in this work he should do more than present a general and popular view of the subjects of head-ach and indigestion, or suggest any novelties in the treatment of those diseases: nor have we remarked any such that are worthy of being particularized. We think that the author has not spoken at sufficient length of acidity of the stomach as a cause of head-ach; nor has he mentioned the easy and agreeable mode of correcting it by means of the bicarbonates of soda and potass. Many young persons suffer from head-ach on account of the profusion of hair which is worn by them; and here the remedy is obvious. In

rheumatic head-ach, when of long duration, shewing the head is of much importance: but, to effect a cure, the employment of the shower-bath is often required in addition. Mr. E.'s remarks on digestion, on the causes which interfere with the healthful performance of that function, and on the train of serious evils and even organic changes which indigestion produces, are expressed in clear language, and are well adapted to make a deep impression on those who thoughtlessly sacrifice their health for the pleasures of the table. The good sense of the author, however, is not always sufficiently on the alert to prevent him from being sometimes betrayed into a little inflation of style, which is not altogether suited to the sobriety of his subject. Judiciously enough, we grant, he has conceived a horror of tight neckcloths, and he has therefore denounced them in the following singular manner:

‘It would appear, that not only is disease the consequence of an alteration of fashion, but may we not also inquire, whether it has not militated against the emanations of genius? To what are we to ascribe the manifest falling off of talent in the present century, compared to that of the preceding? Does the page of poetry, of the present day especially, exhibit the brilliancy of imagination, or the sublimity of flight, which characterised that of the Miltons, the Drydens, and the Popes? It is true, that at present there is no paucity in the numbers of the aspirants to poetic fame; but, with the exception of a few, the works of modern bards must pass down the stream of oblivion, without purchasing for their authors the “storied urn or animated bust.” It cannot be wondered at that the mind should be less creative, or the fancy less excursive, if the vessels of that organ from whence it springs be congested with an undue quantity of blood.

‘On these grounds, I would recommend to all classes to cease to swathe their necks with thick cravats, seeing that the custom is attended by such evil consequences.’

Potatoes, as an article of food, stand well in the opinion of Mr. Farmer: but the dealers in grits and oatmeal have no small cause of complaint against him; for he has endeavoured to counteract all the good offices of Dr. Kitchener, by branding these articles as productive of acidity of stomach, and eruptions on the skin, which nearly resemble what was once held to be the peculiar heritage of our northern fellow-subjects.

We must observe, in conclusion, that the work of Mr. Farmer is calculated to do much service, by directing the attention of those who suffer from head-ach to the condition of the stomach and bowels; where they will, in a great proportion of instances, find the real cause of the evil. The instructions, also, which it contains, on the subjects of diet, exercise, and clothing, are likely to prove very useful to the dyspeptic invalid.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 17. *Eisteddvod; or, Meeting of Welsh Bards and Minstrels*, held at the Freemasons' Tavern, London, on Thursday, May 22. 1823, under the Auspices of the Cymmrodorion, or Royal Metropo-

Metropolitan: Cambrian Institution. Patron, The King, President, Sir W. W. Wynn, Bart. M.P.; Presidents, of the Day, The Right Honourable Lord Dyce, and The Right Honourable Lord Kenyon. Sec. 1st. Williams.

This Society is formed for the purpose of encouraging the cultivation of ancient British literature and music, towards which end it distributes premiums and medals for compositions in Welsh and in English; and also for the collection of scarce books and MSS. relative to the history and poetry of the *Cymry*: a word which literally signifies an *aboriginal people*, and has consequently been always appropriated to themselves by the Welsh, who claim that distinction. A volume of Transactions of the Society has already been published, and another is preparing.

The present pamphlet relates to the anniversary meeting recently held in London; states the origin of the Session of Bards, which was a Welsh national assemblage in the days of druidical institutions; and gives the poetry of the concert which was performed on the 22d of May last. Some of these compositions, which are partly original, have much merit; and we observe the name of Mrs. Hemans among the Contributors, whose works have been favorably introduced to our readers. We quote one of her songs.

'AIR — "All ye Cambrian Youth."

Where are they, those Green Fairy Islands*, reposing

In sunlight and beauty on Ocean's calm breast?

What spirit, the things which are hidden disclosing,

Shall point the bright way to their dwelling of rest?

Oh! lovely they rose on the dreams of past ages,

The mighty have sought them, undaunted in faith,

But the land hath been sad for her warriors and sages,

For the guide to those realms of the blessed — is death!

Where are they, the high-minded children of glory,

Who steered for those distant green spots on the wave?

To the winds of the ocean they left their wild story,

In the fields of their country they found not a grave!

Perchance they repose where the summer-breeze gathers,

From the flowers of each vale, immortality's breath;

But their steps shall be ne'er on the hills of their fathers,

For the guide to those realms of the blessed — is death!

* "The Death of Llywelyn," a song by J. H. Parry, Esq., is beautifully and poetically appropriate;

"The Green Islands of the Ocean," or "Green Spots of the Floods," (respecting which some remarkable superstitions have been preserved in Wales,) were supposed to be the abode of the *Fair Family*, or souls of the virtuous Druids.

Gavran, a distinguished British chieftain of the fifth century, went on a voyage with his family, to discover these islands; but they were never heard of afterwards. — Vide Welsh Melodies,

'AIR

' *Ain*—“ *The Men of Harlech*.”

' Who is he, with eye dark gleaming,
Visage wild, yet noble seeming,
As the fount of life, fast streaming,
Rolls its purple tide?

Lo! in anguish lying,
Fleet his soul is flying,
Yet still is seen
His warlike mien,

Like some hero dying.
Cymru, 'tis thy Prince expiring,
Bravest of thy race retiring,
Fame no more his bosom firing:—
Thy last hope and pride!

' Near to where yon torrent rushes*,
Great *Llywelyn*'s life-drop gushes,
Ebbing fast, though death scarce crushes
His unconquer'd fire!

Still for *Cymru* beating,
His heart's pulse is fleeting,
Nor Saxon spear †,
That rankles near,

E'er can quell its greeting.
Foes, and foe-like friends †, despising,
Nought but *Cymru*'s freedom prising,
Still for her in hope uprising,
His last sighs expire.'

The writer of this song has also prepared the account of the Origin of the Bardic Sessions, to which we have already alluded; and in a note to which he observes that 'the indiscriminate massacre of the bards, generally imputed to Edward, seems to be a mere fiction. At least, we find no authentic notice of it in the Welsh poets, who lived after that period, and who would have been the first to record such a deed of atrocity, if there had been any foundation for it.' This is a candid admission on the part of our Welsh brethren, and tends to some redemption of the memory of the Saxon king from great obloquy.

The funds of this Society do not appear to be very flourishing, and we recommend it to more extensive patronage; since its object seems not only quite unobjectionable, but laudably tending

* The Wye, or Edw, in the neighbourhood of one of which rivers *Llywelyn* is reported to have been slain (in 1282). Tradition appropriates the event to the latter.'

† Warrington says, that Adam de Francton plunged a spear into *Llywelyn*'s body.'

† It is generally allowed that the fate of *Llywelyn* was owing to the treachery of some of his own countrymen, who betrayed him into the hands of his enemies. See an interesting account of his last moments in Warrington's *Hist. of Wales*, vol. ii. p. 270.'

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to the preservation of ancient history, literature, and *instrumental poetry*, if we may be allowed the phrase,

Art. 18. *Blossoms of Anecdote and Wit, or Mirth for the Parlour.*

12mo. pp. 379. 7s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1823.

"Of making many (jest) books there is no end;" and those who have been accustomed to turn them over, and are in general miscellaneous readers, will seldom find much that to them is new in any fresh compilation of the sort. They will, at the same time, too commonly have occasion to censure the editors of such publications for introducing jests and anecdotes that are salacious, though not with *Attic salt*, and which render the books unfit for a parlour-table. Praise is due, therefore, to the present compiler for having determined to exclude all matters of this kind; and he is justified in the confidence with which he offers his work as a parlour-companion, "the most attentive care having been exerted to admit only such articles as shall be conducive to harmless pleasure, or to the improvement of the mind."—This merit he may claim. How far his readers will compliment him on the novelty of his matter will depend on the extent of their own researches, and the goodness of their memory. For our part, obliged as we are to *read every thing*, we cannot say that on this occasion we have met with many new acquaintances: but *some* we have, and others we have been pleased to see again. As we always enliven our pages with a few quotations from these collections, so shall we now gather a handful or two of *blossoms*, without fearing to diminish the editor's crop of *fruit*.

To shew that the volume may tend, as it professes, to 'the improvement of the mind,' we quote this moral lesson:

'How to be always easy, or the right Use of the Eyes.'

"An Italian bishop struggled through great difficulties without repining, and met with much opposition in discharge of his episcopal function, without ever betraying the least impatience. An intimate friend of his, who admired those virtues which he thought it impossible to imitate, one day asked the prelate if he could communicate the secret of being always easy? "Yes," replied the old man, "I can teach you my secret, and with great facility; it consists in nothing more than making a right use of my eyes." His friend urged him to explain himself. "Most willingly," returned the bishop: "in whatever state I am, I first of all look up to heaven, and remember that my principal business here is to prepare for my journey there: I then look down upon the earth, and call to mind how small a space I shall occupy in it when I come to be interred: I then look abroad into the world, and observe what multitudes there are, who, in all respects, are more unhappy than myself. Thus I learn where true happiness is placed, where all our cares must end, and how very little reason I have to repine, or complain."

We do not recollect the following anecdote of regal acuteness:

10 When Moliere, the comic poet, died, the Archbishop of Paris would not let his body be buried in consecrated ground. The king,

king, being informed of this, sent for the archbishop, and expostulated with him about it; but finding the prelate inflexibly obstinate, his majesty asked, how many feet deep the consecrated ground reached? This question coming by surprise, the archbishop replied, About eight. "Well," answered the king, "I find there's no getting the better of your scruples; therefore, let his grave be dug twelve feet deep, that's four below your consecrated ground, and let him be buried there."

The figure of St. George and the Dragon, on the new gold coin called a Sovereign, is thus drolly criticized, in verse:

' St. George one day went out
To give the Dragon a bout;
Of his clothes he was careful enough,
So he stripp'd himself to his buff;
He did not put on his armour,
For St. George was no alarmer;
But his wife made him take her cloak,
"For," said she, "to take cold is no joke."
' So he started, but when he came near,
He found he'd forgot his spear;
Then he pluck'd from a hedge a stake,
And the Dragon began to quake;
St. George he drew his arm back,
To give the Dragon a whack;
Then the Dragon fell down and shamm'd sick,
But St. George so ill manag'd his stick,
That he prick'd his horse in the flanks;
"O ho!" said the horse, "no thanks!"
So up his head he whaps,
And hit St. George in the chops;
And beat his face to a jelly,
That whether it were face or no, none can tell ye.'

The 'droll effect of Music' is thus exemplified:

'The effect of music on the senses was oddly and wonderfully verified, during a late court-mourning. A taylor had a great number of black suits, which were to be finished in a short space of time. Among his workmen there was a fellow who was always singing *Rule Britannia*, and the rest of the journeymen joined in the chorus. The master made his observations, and found that the slow time of the tune retarded the work; in consequence he engaged a blind fiddler, and placing him near the workshop, made him play the lively tune of *Nancy Dawson*. This had the proper effect—the taylor's elbows moved *obedient to the melody*, and the clothes were sent home within the prescribed period.'

A very good *Irish bull* occurs at p. 326., and a song full of bulls at p. 188. We take the former:

'An English gentleman being taken ill of the yellow fever at Jamaica, a lady who had married in that island indirectly hinted to him, in the presence of an Irish physician that attended him, the propriety of making his will, in a country where people are

so apt to die. The physician thinking his judgment called in question, tartly replied, "Faith, madam, I wish you would tell me that country where people do not die, and I would go and *end my days* there."

A panning song, derived 'from the London Magazine,' may please those who love quibbles.

- ' Young Ben he was a nice young man,
A carpenter by trade;
And he fell in love with Sally Brown,
That was a lady's maid.
- ' But as they fetch'd a walk one day,
They met a press-gang crew;
And Sally she did faint away,
Whilst Ben he was brought to.
- ' The boatswain swore with wicked words,
Enough to shock a saint;
That though she did seem in a fit,
'Twas nothing but a feint.
- ' Come, girl, said he, hold up your head,
He'll be as good as me:
For when your swain is in our boat
A boatswain he will be.
So when they'd made their game of her,
And taken off her elf,
She roused and found she only was
A coming to herself.
- ' And is he gone, and is he gone?
She cried, and wept out-right:
Then I will to the water-side,
And see him out of sight.
- ' A waterman came up to her,
Now young woman, said he;
If you weep on so, you will make,
Eye-water in the sea.
- ' Alas! they've taken my beau, Ben,
To sail with old Benbow;
And her woe began to run afresh,
As if she had said "Gee woe."
- ' Says he they've only taken him
To the tender-ship you see;
The tender, cried poor Sally Brown,
What a hard-ship that must be!
- ' O! would I were a mermaid now,
For then I'd follow him;
But, oh! I'm not a fishwoman,
And so I cannot swim.

' Alas,

- ‘ Alas, I was not born beneath
 “ The virgin and the scales,”
 So I must curse my cruel stars,
 And walk about in Wales.
- ‘ Now Ben had sailed to many a place,
 That’s underneath the world ;
 But in two years the ship came home,
 And all the sails were furl’d.
- ‘ But when he call’d on Sally Brown,
 To see how she went on :
 He found she’d got another Ben,
 Whose Christian name was John.
- ‘ O Sally Brown, O Sally Brown,
 How could you serve me so ?
 I’ve met with many a breeze before,
 But never such a blow.
- ‘ Then reading on his ’bacco-box,
 He heaved a heavy sigh ;
 And then began to eye his pipe,
 And then to pipe his eye.
- ‘ And then he tried to sing All’s Well,
 But could not, though he tried ;
 His head was turn’d, and so he chew’d
 His pigtail till he died.
- ‘ His death which happen’d in his birth,
 At forty odd befell ;
 They went and told it the sexton,
 And the sexton toll’d the bell.’

Captain Fluellen’s well-known description of the numbers of the French army, before the battle of Agincourt, is here (page 99.) put into the mouth of Charles XII. of Sweden, at the battle of Narva. What is the authority for this? We stand up for Fluellen; and the editor must *eat a leek* if he has robbed the gallant Welshman.

Art. 19. *The Art of valuing Rents and Tillages*; wherein is explained the Manner of valuing the Tenant’s Right on entering and quitting Farms, in Yorkshire and the adjoining Counties. The whole is adapted for the Use of Landlords, Land Agents, Appraisers, Farmers, and Tenants. By J. S. Bayldon, Land Agent and Appraiser. 8vo. pp.187. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

A work of this description is scarcely cognizable by a literary tribunal: but, among the many productions relating to agriculture which are daily issuing from the press, we are not aware of any which exactly corresponds with the present. A landlord when he wants to let a farm, and a tenant before he hires it, will each employ his own agent, perhaps, to value the rent and tillages, to fix on the course of cropping, the covenants, &c. When they compare

pare notes, the parties are both surprised at the discrepant results of the two valuations, and neither is satisfied with that of the other, while he is not able to defend his own. The principle on which a fair and judicious valuation of land under different circumstances of soil, situation, proximity to markets, poor's rate, &c. can be made, is extremely desirable to be known by the parties concerned; for then the agent of a man who, but for the natural bias of his own personal interest, would himself be competent to make a just valuation of the farm which he is about to let or to hire, will feel that his estimate is to be scrutinized by a competent person, and will consequently be more careful in making it. So far as we can judge about these matters, we think that Mr. Bayldon has laid down some rules for the government of the incoming and the out-going tenant, as well as for that of the landlord, which will be extremely serviceable to all the three.

Art. 20. *May you Like it.* By a Country Curate. Vol. II. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Boys. 1823.

We are happy in being able to give, on the whole, a more favorable account of this little work than of its precursor, which we took occasion to notice in our xcviith volume, p. 112. The writer (who, we believe, has good claims to the title which he has assumed,) appears to have profited by the experience which an introduction to the public has afforded him, and to have abandoned some of the faults to which we adverted in examining his first volume. He is less affected, and consequently more easy and pleasing in his narrative, though he is still not altogether natural and simple. Occasionally, indeed, he strives to be *too* simple, which is a fault altogether as great as an overstrained refinement. We would have him write in his own language, without imitating either the artless innocence of a child or the naked simplicity of a Quaker: for the powers both of description and sentiment, which he displays in the present tales, are highly respectable; and, if united to a greater purity of taste, they would render his writings as pleasing as they would be useful. Nothing, indeed, can be more honorable to him than the tone of moral feeling which pervades his pages, and the excellent lessons which they inculcate.

In the present volume, the tales intitled 'A Sister's Love' and 'An Old Incumbent' are the most pleasingly written. 'Mary Hope' is supposed to be the composition of an old gentleman of the last century, and the language is intended to be conformable to that idea, but the *simulation* is poorly supported. Incongruities of this kind have a very ill effect.

Art. 21. *Essays and Sketches in Prose.* By George Mihner, jun. Author of "Stanzas written on a Summer's Evening," and other Poems, &c. 12mo. pp. 172. 5s. Boards. Printed at Derby for the Author, and sold by Longman and Co. London.

Whatever mistaken opinions may have gone forth regarding the undue severity and hard dealing, with which critics are said to visit the early efforts of writers not exactly of the highest order, we can truly assert that, on our part, it is always gratifying to be able

able to make favourable mention of any manifestations of rising genius and merit, in whatever department they occur; and this is not rendered a less pleasing task by its comparatively rare occurrence, among the numerous candidates for public approbation: a fact which is strikingly illustrated by those effusions of a secondary class, to which our attention is daily and hourly solicited.

This gratification we are happy in the present instance to be enabled to indulge, inasmuch as the pleasing and unpretending little volume before us will be found to contain, we think, something *more* than a mere promise of better things. While it evidently bears the impression of youthful and inexperienced feelings, in its entire sentiments and descriptions, we observe a vividness in its fancies, and in its delineation of incidents and characters, which intitle it, beyond its own little world of poetic joys and sorrows, to a favourable reception from those who are wont to prize the genuine touches of nature and simplicity. Whatever may be its youthful deficiencies and blemishes, easily excusable at the author's tender age, to us his effusions read like an unpremeditated and faithful transcript of his heart and mind, with sufficient indications of genius and pathos to impart a spirit and a relish to the imaginary scenes in which he has delighted to embody them. For this reason, we give the preference to a few of the short stories of a purely descriptive and pathetic cast, rather than to the author's disquisitions on general subjects; in which his deficiency in experience, observation, and judgment, is more apparent, whatever good sense and good feeling may have dictated the remarks.

Among these little tales, also, we may point out those of 'Helen Lefevre,' 'a Village Church-yard,' and the conclusion of 'Andrew Hopeful's early Life,' as most likely to reward the reader's perusal: portions of which cannot fail to reach the heart, not merely (we trust) of the youthful reader, but of all who are alive to the sweetest charities of life. A few of the essays are distinguished by original remark, with a portion of cleverness, and a degree of elevated feeling which is creditable to the writer's taste.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received the sensible and obliging letter from Eastwood: but we fear that some circumstances, which we cannot explain here, will prevent us from adopting the suggestion of the writer. The matter, however, shall have farther consideration.

R. J. S. is referred to our eighty-eighth volume, p. 335., Number for March, 1819.

We would send a private answer to our correspondent who dates temporarily from Windsor, if we knew his exact address.

* * * The APPENDIX to the last volume of the Review is published with this Number, and contains numerous articles on interesting Foreign Works: together with the *General Title, Table of Contents, and Index* for the Volume.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1823.

ART. I. *Memoirs of the Private Life of Marie Antoinette, Queen of France and Navarre.* To which are added, Recollections, Sketches, and Anecdotes, illustrative of the Reigns of Louis XIV., Louis XV., and Louis XVI. By Madame Campan, first Femme de Chambre to the Queen. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14 8s. Boards. Colburn and Co. 1823.

WITHIN these few years, many volumes of memoirs relative to the French Revolution have appeared, which furnish invaluable documents to the future historian, and in the mean time supply most interesting themes to the curiosity of the age. Many of them have preserved facts illustrative of those times of horror and of blood, which might not otherwise have seen the light; and most of them may be safely consulted as authentic depositaries of those concealed movements and private intrigues, which have so efficient an influence in all political changes. Thus the memoirs of Barbaroux have disclosed much of the secret history of the tenth of August; and those of Camille Desmoulins, published with the title of "Secret History of the Revolution," have removed the veil from the more hidden machinery and the less avowed motives, which produced that most tremendous of popular convulsions. The interesting and well-known narrative of the transactions in the Temple, by Clery, is also a touching but faithful picture of the captivity of Louis XVI. and his family. To these and other important documents, we may now add the Memoirs of Madame Campan, whose character must induce her readers to confide in the generality of her relations. They may, indeed, draw their own conclusions from them, according to their own mode of reasoning or habits of feeling: but the tone, the manner, the spirit, all in short that goes by the name of internal evidence, bear testimony to their authenticity.

Although various interesting memoirs of the unfortunate Queen of France have been published, none, we think, exhibit a clearer mirror of her character and dispositions than we have now before us, because none shew her more as she

was, in the privacies of social life, and disencumbered of the pomp and formality of greatness. The work contains also curious particulars relative to the court of Louis XV., as well as that of Louis XVI. To enable our readers to estimate the degree of confidence due to Madame Campan, it is fitting that we should give a short account of her; and this we have abridged, with considerable trouble, from the biographical notice prefixed to her Memoirs by the French editor: who has by no means performed his task with the compendious brevity, that is so essentially requisite for that part of a book which is merely preliminary.

Henriette Genet, afterward Madame Campan, the daughter of a gentleman who had filled some official situation under the Duke de Choiseul, was born in the year 1752. Her education was anxiously superintended by her father, who was competent to the task; and, in addition to the usual accomplishments of her sex, she made considerable progress both in Italian and English literature. It was also her good fortune, under this excellent parent, to acquire the rare talent of fine elocution: which, through the interest of several ladies of high rank, procured her, while yet very young, the place of reading companion to the daughters of Louis XV. She was then but fifteen; and her father felt some regret in committing her, at so early an age, to the malice of courtiers. When, dressed for the first time in the costume of the court, she went to take leave of him in his closet, the tears fell from his eyes, and mingled with the joy which his features expressed at her promotion. He summed up all the advantages which she possessed, to guard her the more against the inquietudes which they would not fail to draw down on her. "The Princesses," said he, "will be delighted with your talents, and the great have the art of praising gracefully, but always to excess. As often, however, as you receive these flattering testimonies, you will have the more enemies. I warn you, my daughter, of the risks that are incidental to your new condition; and I declare to you that, on this very day, when you appear in ecstasy with your good fortune, if I could have established you in any other situation, I would not have delivered you to the torments and dangers of a court."

This situation, however, proved to have few charms for Mademoiselle Genet; the court of the Princesses being grave, formal, and *sombre*. The eldest, Madame Adelaide, lived entirely by herself, Madame Sophie was proud, and Madame Louise was a devotee, but Madame Victoire won her heart. She had once been handsome, and her conversation was gentle, easy, and unaffected. The young Genet passed whole
days

days with this princess in her apartment, where Louis XV. frequently visited them. That king, she says, had a distinguished appearance, and graceful demeanor : but even in these volumes we have evidence that he has left a reputation which has been deservedly stigmatized by posterity. Credulous, saturnine, and melancholy, — dignified at his court, but wavering and irresolute in council, — and governed by a common prostitute, — he fled to intemperance and intrigue as a refuge from care. About this time, the marriage of the Dauphin with the Arch-duchess Marie Antoinette, of Austria, had been negotiated ; an alliance projected by the Duc de Choiseul before his disgrace, and which that minister conceived to be a master-stroke of policy. These ill-fated nuptials, of which the daughter of Maria Theresa was destined to be the victim, were celebrated in May, 1770 ; and shortly afterward the writer of these Memoirs was placed near her person, and honored with her confidence. No other member of the royal family but the Dauphin being married, the Dauphiness had at first little society except that of the Princesses ; and it was in the apartments of Madame Victoire that she was struck with the beauty and the talents of Mademoiselle Genet, who frequently accompanied her on the harp or the piano, to the airs of Gretry.

Such patronage soon led to her establishment in life ; and not long afterward she became the wife of M. Campan, a widower, whose father was private secretary to the queen. Louis XV. settled on her 5000 livres per annum by way of dowry ; and she was placed in the household of the Dauphiness as woman of the chamber, but continued her duties as reader to the Princesses. For the space of twenty years, from the marriage of Marie Antoinette down to the fatal attack of the 10th of August, 1792, Madame Campan never quitted her benefactress ; and from this period her life was singularly eventful. Her fidelity to her mistress necessarily exposed her to danger, but it remained unshaken. She threw herself at the feet of Petion to implore the melancholy privilege of sharing the captivity of the Queen ; and, although this favor was denied her, she expected every moment to experience the same fate. Denounced and actually pursued by Robespierre, who had discovered that she was the depositary of several important papers, confided to her care by the King and the Queen, she at last found a place of concealment at Coubertin. Her sister, Madame Auguié, destroyed herself on the very day on which she was arrested, hoping by that dreadful act of despair to preserve the remains of her fortune to her children : but, had she deferred her
fatal

fatal purpose only a few hours, she would have been saved, for the car on which Robespierre was conducted to the scaffold actually stopped the hearse of Madame Auguié. The fall of that execrable tyrant delivered Madame Campan from the terrors of the guillotine.

In her retreat at Coubertin she had superintended the education of her nieces, daughters of her ill-fated sister, one of whom became afterward the wife of Marshal Ney. She had now to support an aged mother, a sick husband, a son nine years old, and another part of her family. She tells us herself that she had at this time only an assignat of 500 francs, and that she had made herself responsible for 30,000 francs to discharge the debts of her husband. She therefore projected a school, and selected St. Germain for her residence. She could not afford to print her prospectus, and was obliged to write a hundred copies of her plan with her own hand. At the end of a year, she had sixty pupils, and soon afterward a hundred. Indeed, the reputation of the institution, and its profits, increased every day: for a school, directed by a lady who had the tone, the air, the habits, and the conversation of the best society, was sure to be munificently patronized. Before the marriage of Madame de Beauharnais with Bonaparte, she placed her daughter Hortense under the care of Madame Campan; and when he returned from Italy, that victorious General, (as he then was,) being much satisfied with the progress of his daughter-in-law, invited her to Malmaison, and attended the performance of Racine's Esther, which had been undertaken by the young ladies. After the battle of Austerlitz, an asylum for the sisters, daughters, and nieces of those who were decorated with the Cross of Honor was established at Ecouen, and it was placed under the superintendence of Madame Campan. The important duties of this responsible charge she fulfilled with the greatest talent and assiduity; and, when Bonaparte visited the establishment, the order and regularity of the house, and the appearance of the children, extorted from him his usual eulogium, *Tout est bien.* *

* The establishment of Madame Campan is stated to have been the subject of conversation between Napoleon and his co-exiles at St. Helena, in the Journal of Count Las Cases, vol. ii. part ii. p. 316.: where a curious anecdote occurs of his having placed there also Mademoiselle Stephanie Beauharnais, afterward Princess of Baden, and of the care and interest which he took respecting this young relative of Josephine. Napoleon seemed to have a good opinion of Madame Campan, as we shall farther see in the progress of this article.

By a strange fatality, the restoration of the Bourbons was the termination of Madame Campan's prosperity. The school at Ecouen was suppressed; the most absurd but malicious calumnies were circulated against her; and she retired to Mantes, to wear out the remnant of an existence embittered by sorrow, enfeebled by age, and suffering under acute and incurable disease: finding, however, some distraction from the melancholy with which the sad vicissitudes of her life had tinged her feelings, in preparing and revising these *Memoirs*. She died at Mantes, 16th March, 1822.

We repeat, then, that Madame C. is apparently a credible witness respecting all that she saw and knew: but a great many things happened which she did not see and could not know; and she often attempts to explain and account for events which were beyond her powers of comprehension and development. We must add that it is unavoidable to observe with what *naïveté* so respectable a woman can relate circumstances of indelicacy, which in this country no such female would commit to paper, or acknowledge to have read. She tells us more than once (vol. i. pp. 85. 181. and 188.) that Louis XVI. lived many years with his queen in a state of such total indifference to her that she was "*a wife and no wife*," but that at length Marie Antoinette informed her (Mad. C.) that 'she was *really* Queen of France, and hoped soon to have children.' Besides this, however, in her miscellaneous *Recollections, Sketches, &c.* at the end of vol. i. she gives an anecdote of Louis XV. (p. 407.) which is still more plainly indecent; and in pages 443—446. other stories of that monarch's amours are yet worse,—but they are added by the editor.

At the beginning of the first volume we meet with one or two anecdotes of Louis XV., and an amusing sketch of the court at the period when Madame Campan first obtained her situation at Versailles.

' Marie Leckzinska, (wife of Louis XV.) was just dead; the death of the Dauphin had preceded hers by three years; the Jesuits were suppressed, and piety was to be found at court only in the apartments of the Princesses. The Duke de Choiseul was in power.

' The King thought of nothing but the pleasures of the chase; it might have been imagined that the courtiers indulged themselves in epigrammatizing, by hearing them say seriously on those days when the King did not hunt, the King does nothing to-day.

' Little journies were also affairs of great importance with the King. On the first day of the year, he noted down in his almanack the days of departure for Compiègne, for Fontainebleau,

Choisy, &c. The weightiest matters, the most serious events, never deranged this distribution of his time.

' Etiquette still existed at court with all the severity it had acquired under Louis XIV.; dignity alone was wanting. As to gaiety, it was out of the question: Versailles was no longer a rallying point to display the wit and grace of Frenchmen. The focus of sense and intelligence was Paris.

' Since the death of the Marchioness de Pompadour, the King had had no avowed mistress; he contented himself with the pleasures presented to him by his little seraglio of the Parc-au-Cerfs. It is well known that the monarch found the separation of Louis de Bourbon from the King of France the most animating feature of his royal existence. "They would have it so; they thought it for the best;" was his way of expressing himself when the measures of his ministers were unsuccessful. The King delighted to manage the most disgraceful points of his private expences himself; he one day sold to a head clerk in the war-department a house in which one of his mistresses had lodged; the contract ran in the name of Louis de Bourbon; and the purchaser himself took in a bag the price of the house in gold, to the King in his private closet.

' Louis XV. saw very little of his family; he came every morning by a private staircase into the apartment of Madame Adelaide. He often brought and drank there coffee that he had made himself. Madame Adelaide pulled a bell, which apprized Madam Victoire of the King's visit; Madame Victoire, on rising to go to her sister's apartment, rang for Madame Sophie, who in her turn rang for Madame Louise. The apartments of the Princesses were of very large dimensions. Madame Louise occupied the farthest room. This latter lady was deformed and very short; the poor Princess used to run with all her might to join the daily meeting, but having a number of rooms to cross, she frequently, in spite of her haste, had only just time to embrace her father, before he set out for the chase.

' Every evening at six, the ladies interrupted my reading to them, to accompany the Princes to Louis XV.; this visit was called the King's *debotter**, and was marked by a kind of etiquette. The Princesses put on an enormous hoop, which set out a petticoat ornamented with gold or embroidery; they fastened a long train round their waists, and concealed the *undress* of the rest of their clothing, by a long cloak of black taffety which enveloped them up to the chin. The gentlemen-ushers, the ladies in waiting, the pages, the esquires, and the ushers bearing large flambeaux, accompanied them to the King. In a moment the whole palace, generally so still, was in motion; the King kissed each Princess on the forehead, and the visit was so short, that the reading which it interrupted was frequently resumed at the end of a quarter of an hour: the Princesses returned to their apartments, and untied the strings of their petticoats and trains; they resumed their tapestry, and I my book.

* *Debotter*, meaning the time of unbooting. — *Tr.*

In the *Recollections*, &c. p. 415., we have an illustration of the political character of this monarch.

‘ Weak as Louis XV. was, the parliaments would never have obtained his consent to the convocation of the States-general. I heard an anecdote on this subject from two officers attached to that Prince’s household. It was at the period when the remonstrances of the parliaments, and the refusals to register the decrees for levying taxes, produced alarm with respect to the state of the finances. This became the subject of conversation one evening at the *coucher* of Louis XV.: “ You will see, Sire,” said a courtier, whose office placed him in close communication with the King, “ that all this will make it absolutely necessary to assemble the States-general.” The King, roused by this speech from the habitual apathy of his character, seized the courtier by the arm, and said to him, in a passion, — “ Never repeat those words: I am not sanguinary; but had I a brother, and he were to dare to give me such advice, I would sacrifice him, within twenty-four hours, to the duration of the monarchy, and the tranquillity of the kingdom.”’

It is lamentable to think that, amid all the luxury and elegance of the court, the daughters of the King had received scarcely that ordinary degree of education which, in our own country, almost every tradesman now confers on his children. They had been simple *pensionnaires* in a convent, 24 leagues from Versailles. At twelve years of age, Madame Louise did not know her letters, and she could not read with fluency till she returned to Versailles; and poor Victoire was subject to fits of terror for her whole life, which originated in her having been frightened at the Abbaye de Fonterrault, by being sent to repeat her prayers in the vault where the nuns were buried. The Dauphin (afterward Louis XVI.) was in some sort their tutor, and they owed to his care the little instruction which they afterward obtained. Sophie was very ugly, walked in great haste, and was silent and sullen. Sometimes, indeed, she was affable and communicative; as when a thunder-storm occurred, of which she had a great dread: she would then speak to every body, and a flash of lightning made her grasp the hand of the first person whom she met: but, when the storm was over, her ill-humour returned, which lasted till another clap of thunder renewed her alarms and her affability. — They, if such there be, who have sighed for the splendors of a royal station, would do well to revolve in their minds the present author’s description of the gloom and monotony, the heavy solitude and mechanical routine, of the lives of these ladies. If, says she, the Princesses had not imposed on themselves a variety of employments, they would have been quite wretched. They loved walking, but

could walk only in the public gardens of Versailles: they had a natural taste for flowers, but could cultivate them only on their windows.

When Louis had become sated with his low amours, it was still necessary to supply him with another mistress; and his people soon found him one, who governed him with a sway as absolute as Madame de Pompadour. This was Madame du Barry. Having prevailed on a Viscount du Barry to espouse her, (a man of a low education, but connected with the old nobility,) the conductors of this intrigue, hoping, through her ascendancy, to undermine the Duke de Choiseul, presented her at court: Habituated as they were to the scandalous enormities of the regency, and the open violation of every moral duty, the Parisians could scarcely observe without shame the humiliating spectacle of a common prostitute dispensing the favors of the crown. The political object, however, succeeded, and Choiseul was its victim. The devotees, who never forgave the destruction of the Jesuits, influenced the Princesses; the Dauphin was led away by the prejudices infused into him by his governor, the Duke de la Vauguyon; a new ministry was formed, composed of the Duke D'Aiguillon, the Chancellor Maupeou, and the Abbé Terrai; and this was the posture of things at Versailles, when the young and beautiful Archduchess Marie Antoinette arrived at that court, at the very point of time when the party, by whose means she was brought thither, was overthrown.

Notwithstanding the talents of Maria Theresa, the education of her daughter had been neglected. She knew thoroughly, however, all that had been taught her; and the fault was in her masters. Metastasio, indeed, who taught her Italian, did his duty, and she spoke and translated that language with the greatest facility. She did not write French correctly, but talked it with ease. German she never attempted to learn. She was devotedly fond of music, but could not play well on any instrument; yet she read music at sight. She acquired this last talent in France; for, when she first arrived there, and La Garde was introduced to her as her music-master, she was ashamed of her own ignorance of the elements of the art; and, having put off her lessons to an indefinite period, under pretence of requiring time to repose from the fatigues of her journey and the fêtes and rejoicings of Versailles, she received, in the mean while, private lessons from the son of M. Campan for three months. "The Dauphiness," she observed, "must take charge of the Archduchess's reputation." Three months of diligent application answered the purpose, and she astonished M. La Garde with her

her improvement. The Abbé de Vermond had been sent over to Vienna by Choiseul in the capacity of tutor to the future Dauphiness; and this man, vain and arrogant far beyond the measure of his abilities, retained a strong and frequently a pernicious influence over his royal mistress. Madame Campan imputes to his counsels that ill-timed and impolitic contempt, which was expressed by Marie Antoinette on her first arrival for the usages and etiquettes of the Bourbon family, and which caused her so many enemies at court.

A few scattered sentences will tend farther towards the formation of an *intellectual* portrait of this ill-starred princess.

'The Abbé de Vermond visited her daily, but took care to avoid the *imposing** tone of a governor; and would not, even as reader, recommend the study of history. I believe he never read a single volume of history in his life to his *august*† pupil; and, in truth, *there never existed a princess who manifested a more marked aversion for all serious study.*' (Vol. i. p. 70.)

'Marie Antoinette took but little pains to promote literature and the fine arts. She had been rendered uncomfortable in consequence of her having ordered the performance of a piece intitled the "*Connetable de Bourbon*," which had been read in her closet, and she resolved never to hear another reading.' (i. 147, 148.)

'The Queen had not that enlightened judgment, or even that mere taste, which in princes is sufficient to enable them to develop and protect great talents. She had no taste for pictures, and confessed frankly that she saw no merit in any portrait, beyond the likeness. When she went to the Louvre, on the exhibition of the pictures, she would run hastily over all the little imitative subjects, and come out, as she acknowledged, without having once raised her eyes to the grander compositions.' (i. 153.)

'In admitting, with that candour which I will never lose sight of, that the Queen gave no direct encouragement to any art but that of music, I should be wrong to pass over in silence the patronage conferred by her and the Princes, brothers of the King, on the art of printing. To Marie Antoinette we are indebted for a splendid quarto edition of the works of Metastasio; to Monsieur, the King's brother, for a quarto Tasso, embellished with engravings after Cochin; and to the Count d'Artois for a small collection of select works, which is considered one of the *chef-d'œuvres* of the celebrated Didot's press.' (i. 153, 154.)

In the Journal at St. Helena, by Count las Cases, it is related that on one occasion the conversation turned towards the court of Versailles under Louis XVI., the Queen, Madame

* We are disgusted and wearied by the constant transference of this word from the French language into ours, — and often with great impropriety, as in this instance.

† The preceding note is here again applicable, in part.

Campan,

Campan, &c. ; when Napoleon observed that " Louis XVI. would have been a perfect pattern in private life, but had been a wretched king ; and that the Queen would no doubt have been, at all times, the ornament of every circle, but that her levity, her inconsistencies, and want of capacity, had not a little contributed to promote and accelerate the catastrophe." (Vol. iii. part v. p. 92.) Again, at another time ; " the Emperor retraced the portrait of the Queen by Madame Campan ; who, he observed, having been her *confidante*, and having served her with zeal, affection, and fidelity, might be expected to have known a great deal about her, and deserved to be considered as good authority. Madame Campan, he said, had communicated to him many details of the private life of the Queen ; and he related some particulars which he had derived from that source. — The Queen, according to Madame C., was a fascinating woman, but destitute of talent ; she was better calculated to be a votary of pleasure than a participator in affairs of state. She possessed an excellent heart, was parsimonious rather than extravagant, and by no means possessed strength of character equal to the trying circumstances in which she was placed." (Vol. iii. part vi. p. 340.)

As to her *personal* appearance, our readers cannot have forgotten the rapture of Mr. Burke in his book on the French Revolution, respecting her beauty and fascinations. Let us now hear Madame Campan :

' She was then fifteen years of age, beaming with freshness, and appeared to all eyes more than beautiful. Her walk partook at once of the noble character of the princesses of her house, and of the graces of the French ; her eyes were mild — her smile lovely. When she went to chapel, as soon as she had taken the first few steps in the long gallery, she discerned, all the way to its extremity, those persons whom she ought to salute with the consideration due to their rank ; those on whom she should bestow an inclination of the head ; and, lastly, those who were to be satisfied with a smile, while they read in her eyes a feeling of benevolence, calculated to console them for not being entitled to honours.

' Louis XV. was enchanted with the young Dauphiness ; and Madame du Barry ill-temperedly endeavoured to damp his enthusiasm. Whenever Marie Antoinette was the topic, she pointed out the irregularity of her features ; criticised the *bon-mots* quoted as hers ; and rallied the King upon his prepossession in her favour. Madame du Barry was affronted at not receiving from the Dauphiness those attentions to which she thought herself entitled ; she did not conceal her vexation from the King ; she was afraid that

that the grace and cheerfulness of the young Princess would make the domestic circle of the royal family more agreeable to the old sovereign, and that he would escape her chains; at the same time, hatred to the Choiseul party contributed powerfully to excite the enmity of the favourite.

'It is known that the shameful elevation of Madame du Barry was the work of the anti-Choiseul party. The fall of that minister took place in November, 1770, six months after his long influence in the council had brought about the alliance with the house of Austria, and the arrival of Marie Antoinette at the court of France. The Princess, young, open, volatile, and inexperienced, found herself without any other guide than the Abbé de Vermond, in a court ruled by the enemy of the minister who had brought her there, and in the midst of people who hated Austria, and detested an alliance with the imperial house.'

Madame C. enumerates many traits which bespeak the native goodness of the young Dauphiness's heart; and when, some time after her marriage, she made her public entry into Paris, she was received with transports of joy. The Dauphin, however, was naturally cold; or at least, through the artifices of her enemies, his conduct was for several years (as we have already stated) more than indifferent to the woman whom afterward he loved with the utmost affection; and so far did this coldness proceed that a divorce was currently reported. She was much afflicted with this extraordinary conduct, but it is stated by Madame C. that not a murmur escaped her. A few tears, involuntarily shed, were the only indications that betrayed how she felt a neglect which scarcely any woman, in the zenith of her charms and the full brightness of her attractions, could pardon or forget.

We may here insert the author's portrait of Louis.

'The features of Louis XVI. were fine, though somewhat impressed with melancholy; his walk was heavy and unmajestic; his person greatly neglected; his hair, whatever might be the skill of his hair-dresser, was soon in disorder, through his inattention to its neatness. His voice, without being harsh, possessed nothing agreeable; if he grew warm in speaking, he often got above his natural pitch, and uttered shrill sounds. The Abbé de Radonvilliers, his preceptor, a learned, mild, and amiable man, had given him, and Monsieur also, a taste for study. The King had continued to instruct himself; he knew the English language perfectly. I have often heard him translate some of the most difficult passages in Milton's poem: he was a skilful geographer, and was fond of drawing and colouring maps; he was perfectly well versed in history, but had not perhaps sufficiently studied the spirit of it. He relished dramatic beauties, and judged of them accurately.—

'This prince combined with all his information every qualification of a good husband, a tender father, and an indulgent master; and,

and, when we reckon up so many virtues, the years which have elapsed since the barbarities of the factious, and the misfortunes of France, seem too short to convince us that any degree of wickedness could have brought itself to the perpetration of so unheard of an outrage, as his death exhibited.

‘Unfortunately the King shewed too much predilection for the mechanical arts; masonry and lockmaking so delighted him, that he admitted into his private apartment a common locksmith with whom he made keys and locks; and his hands, blackened by that sort of work, were often, in my presence, the subject of remonstrances and even reproaches from the Queen, who would have chosen other amusements for the King.’

The petty gossipings of the court were soon let loose on the Dauphiness. She had not been as yet taught by adversity; and in the levity of youth she threw aside the ceremonies of Versailles, and accustomed those who were admitted to her society to a good-natured but imprudent condescension. Her minutest actions were watched and misinterpreted. The profligate Prince Cardinal de Rohan, then the ambassador at Vienna, was the echo there of the Parisian representations; and from this period may be dated the displeasure and contempt which she ever afterward manifested for that ecclesiastic. Maria Theresa, alarmed at these reports, sent her private secretary, the Baron Neni, to watch her daughter, and to ascertain the opinions of the court and of Paris respecting her conduct. His statement undeceived the Empress, who instantly demanded the recall of Rohan; a demand which, through the powerful influence of his family, was evasively answered.

The chief society of the Dauphiness consisted of the brothers of her husband, and of his aunt Madame Adelaide; till the successive marriages of the Count de Provence and the Count d’Artois with two Sardinian princesses increased that circle, by the addition of two agreeable individuals of her own age and sex. These personages, and the Duchess de Polignac, constituted nearly the whole of her *coterie*. They projected the innocent amusement of performing some of the most unexceptionable of the French comedies.

‘The Dauphin was the only spectator; the three Princesses, the two brothers of the King, and Messrs. Campan, father and son, were the sole performers; but they made it of the utmost importance to keep this amusement as secret as an affair of state: they dreaded the censure of the King’s aunts; and they had no doubt that Louis XV. would forbid such pastimes if he knew of their existence. They selected a retired room which nobody had occasion to enter, for their performance. A kind of proscenium, which could be taken down, and shut up in a closet, formed the stage. The Count de Provence always knew his part so well as

to

to be quite at ease; the Count d'Artois knew his tolerably well, and recited elegantly: the Princesses performed very indifferently. The Dauphiness acquitted herself in some characters with discrimination and feeling. The chief pleasure of this amusement consisted in their having all the costumes elegant and accurate. The Dauphin entered into the spirit of the diversions of the young family, laughed heartily at the comic characters as they came on the scene, and from these amusements may be dated his discontinuance of the timid manner of his youth, and his taking pleasure in the society of the Dauphiness.

An accidental intrusion shewed the danger of discovery, and the amusement was soon abandoned.

During the reign of Louis XV., Marie Antoinette was the idol of admiration at Paris, and the good citizens thronged every Sunday to Versailles to delight their eyes with a sight of her. Among the courtiers, on the contrary, she had many enemies, and, after the disgrace of Choiseul, no friend powerful enough to counteract their malice. That reign, however, approached its end; and on the 10th of May, 1774, this profligate prince expired, miserably, amid all the loathsome horrors of the small-pox. The details of his death are interesting, and present a curious picture of the passions of the court, ill-concealed under a thousand thin disguises.

M. de Maurepas was now placed at the head of the administration, and the decorum of the new court was exemplified in the exile of Madame du Barry to Pont-aux-Dames.

Amid the rejoicings in honor of the young sovereigns, Madame Campan tells us, the malice of the anti-Austrian party was not inactive; and the most infamous libels against the Queen were circulated. If, however, she justly incurred ridicule or reproach, it was when she introduced the studied and inelegant taste for dress, which, after her example, was adopted in every circle. Her enormous feathers and the towering height of her coiffure became the prevailing fashion; and we are gravely assured that the ladies could not find carriages high enough for their head-dress, but were obliged to put their heads out of the windows, or even to keep a kneeling posture in them. These fashions were as changeable as they were fantastic, and it became a general complaint that she would ruin every French woman.

It is impossible not to feel compassion for beings who are compelled, by the formalities of rank, to the toil and servitude of so many ceremonious usages; and consequently to pay the penalty of being the first persons in the kingdom, by being rendered more wretched than the lowest. Madame Campan thus introduces us to the Queen's toilette:

‘ The

' The Princess's toilette was a master-piece of etiquette ; every thing done on the occasion was in a prescribed form. Both the *dame d'honneur* and the tire-woman usually attended and officiated, assisted by the principal lady in waiting, and two inferior attendants. The tire-woman put on the petticoat, and handed the gown to the Queen. The *dame d'honneur* poured out the water for her hands, and put on her body-linen. When a princess of the royal family happened to be present while the Queen was dressing, the *dame d'honneur* yielded to her the latter act of office, but still did not yield it directly to the princesses of the blood ; in such a case, the *dame d'honneur* was accustomed to present the linen to the chief lady in waiting, who, in her turn, handed it to the princess of the blood. Each of these ladies observed these rules scrupulously, as affecting her rights. One winter's day it happened that the Queen, who was entirely undressed, was just going to put on her body linen ; I held it ready unfolded for her ; the *dame d'honneur* came in, slipped off her gloves, and took it. A rustling was heard at the door ; it was opened : and in came the Duchess d'Orleans ; she took her gloves off, and came forward to take the garment ; but as it would have been wrong in the *dame d'honneur* to hand it to her, she gave it to me, and I handed it to the Princess : a further noise — it was the Countess de Provence ; the Duchess d'Orleans handed her the linen. All this while the Queen kept her arms crossed upon her bosom, and appeared to feel cold : Madame observed her uncomfortable situation, and merely laying down her handkerchief, without taking off her gloves, she put on the linen, and, in doing so, knocked the Queen's cap off. The Queen laughed to conceal her impatience, but not until she had muttered several times : " How disagreeable ! how tiresome ! "

Among the posthumous libels which have assailed the Queen's memory, Madame Campan animadverts on the Memoirs published by the Abbé Soulavie, and vindicates the chastity of her mistress from his aspersions ; and we were pleased with this vindication, because it seems to repose on good authority. One or two anecdotes place her respect for delicacy in a strong point of view ; and Madame Campan expresses her own pleasure in being able to bear testimony to two estimable qualities, which she says the Queen possessed in a most eminent degree, — temperance and modesty. She ate in general nothing but roast or boiled fowl, and drank nothing but water. Her modesty also was excessive in all the details of her interior toilette ; she bathed in a long gown of flannel buttoned up to the chin ; and, when she was assisted out of the bath, a cloth was held before her, so that none of the female attendants could see her. Yet the scene exhibited just above is not quite in harmony with this.

Some details respecting the intimacy of the Queen with the Countess (afterward Duchess) de Polignac, and a highly partial account of that lady, are given by Madame C.

' Her

' Her disposition was just what the Queen liked ; she had merely natural talents, no presumption, no affectation of knowledge. She was of the middling size ; her complexion very fair, her eyebrows and hair dark brown, her teeth of dazzling whiteness, her smile enchanting, and her whole person beaming with grace. She disliked dress, and was seen almost always in an undress, remarkable only for its neatness and good taste ; nothing upon her appeared placed with design, nor even with care. I do not think I ever once saw diamonds about her, even at the highest pitch of her fortune, and when she enjoyed the rank of Duchess at court. I always thought that her sincere attachment for the Queen, as much as her love of simplicity, induced her to avoid every thing that might raise a belief of her being a wealthy favourite. She had not one of the failings which usually accompany that title. She loved the persons who shared the Queen's affections, and was entirely free from jealousy. Marie Antoinette flattered herself, that the Countess Jules and the Princess de Lamballe would be her especial friends, and that she should possess a society formed after her own taste. " I will receive them in my closet, or at Trianon," said she : " I will enjoy the comforts of private life, which exist not for us, unless we have the resolution to secure them for ourselves." My memory faithfully recalls to me all the charms which so pleasing an illusion held out to the Queen, in a scheme, whereof she fathomed neither the impossibility nor the dangers. The happiness she thought to secure was only destined to cause her vexation. All those courtiers who were not admitted into this intimacy became so many jealous and vindictive enemies.' —

' It is with reluctance that I enter very minutely on the defence of the Queen against two infamous accusations with which libellers have dared to swell their envenomed volumes. I mean the unworthy suspicions of too strong an attachment for the Count d'Artois, and of the motives for the close friendship which subsisted between the Queen, the Princess de Lamballe, and the Duchess de Polignac. I do not believe that the Count d'Artois was, during the earlier years of his own youth, and that of the Queen, so much smitten, as has been said, with the beauty and loveliness of his sister-in-law ; but I can affirm, that I always saw that Prince maintain the most respectful distance towards the Queen ; that she always spoke of him, of his good-nature and his cheerfulness, with that freedom which never attends any other than the purest sentiments, and that none of those about the Queen ever saw in the affection she manifested towards the Count d'Artois more than that of a kind and tender sister for her youngest brother. As to the intimate connection between Marie Antoinette and the ladies I have named, it never had, nor could have, any other motive than the very innocent wish to secure herself two friends in the midst of a numerous court : and notwithstanding this intimacy, that tone of dignified respect, observed by persons of the most exalted rank towards royal majesty, was never forgotten.'

The

The Queen's circle now consisted of Mesdames de Polignac, the Countesses d'Andlau and de Chalon, MM. de Polignac, de Guignes, de Coigny, d'Adhémar, de Besenval, de Vaudreuil, de Guiche, the Prince de Ligne, and the Duke of Dorset, then ambassador from our court. The favors heaped on the favorite indisposed many families against the Queen, and the *salon* of Madame de Polignac gave great offence to the unfavorable interpreters of her conduct. The amusements of this little society were certainly frivolous, but they do not appear to have been reprehensible. The following incident, among many others, bespeaks the liability to suspicion and slander which is always "the curse of greatness."

' An event, very simple in itself, brought lamentable suspicions upon the conduct of the Queen. She was going out one evening with the Duchess de Luynes, lady of the palace: her carriage broke down at the entrance into Paris; she was obliged to alight; the Duchess led her into a shop, while a footman called a *fiacre*. As they were masked, if they had but known how to keep silence, the event would never have been known; but to ride in a *fiacre* is an adventure so whimsical for a queen, that she had hardly entered the opera-house, when she could not help saying to some persons whom she met there: "That I should be in a *fiacre*; is it not droll?"

' From that moment, all Paris was informed of the adventure of the *fiacre*: it was said that every thing connected with that night-adventure was mysterious; that the Queen had kept an assignation, in a private house, with a nobleman honoured by her kindness; the Duke de Coigny was openly named. He was indeed very well received at court, but equally so by the King and Queen. These suppositions of gallantry once set afloat, there were no longer any bounds to all the foolish conjectures of the gossips of the day, and still less to the calumnies circulated at Paris respecting the Queen: if, during the chase, or at cards, she spoke to Lord Edward Dillon, de Lambertye, or others, whose names I cannot at this moment bring to my recollection, they were so many favoured lovers. The people of Paris did not know that none of those young persons were admitted into the Queen's private circle of friends, nor had even any claim to be introduced there; but the Queen went about Paris in disguise, and had made use of a *fiacre*; unfortunately, a single instance of levity gives room for the suspicion of others, and ill disposed persons do not hesitate to presume that which could not really take place. Kept at ease by the consciousness of innocence, and well knowing all about her must do justice to her private life, the Queen spoke of these false reports with contempt, contenting herself with the supposition, that some vain folly in the young men above mentioned had given rise to them. She therefore left off speaking to them, or even looking at them. Their vanity took the alarm at this, and the pleasure of revenge induced them either to say, or to leave others

others to think, that they were unfortunate enough to please no longer. Other young coxcombs, placing themselves near the private box, which the Queen occupied incognito, when she attended the public theatre at Versailles, had the presumption to imagine that they were noticed by her; and I have known such notions entertained, merely on account of the Queen's requesting one of those gentlemen to enquire behind the scenes, whether it would be long before the commencement of the second piece.'

It must be admitted, however, that the Queen was often indiscreet, and Madame Campan acknowledges this particularly with respect to her evening promenades at Versailles; adding that her 'advice was useless.' (P. 192. 194.) To instances of imprudence should be added these *masked* excursions, and her perseverance in attending late night-parties; though the early habits and inflexible rules of her husband were strongly opposed to such dissipation. He went to bed always punctually at eleven o'clock; and that his rest might not be disturbed by the Queen's return at different hours of the night, he adopted the plan of sleeping in a separate apartment, which he had never before done. (See p. 159.)

The private parties of the Queen, and the selectness of the society which found admission into them, continued to give great offence; and the most odious libels, full of the grossest ribaldry, were circulated against her. The King consulted M. de Maurepas, intimating his apprehensions of the danger gathering over his consort: but that old minister, whose cold and crafty character has been so well drawn by Marimontel, advised him to let her Majesty pursue her own course; suggesting that she had talents, and might apply them to public affairs; and that, to prevent such an interference, it was eligible that she should acquire a fondness for levity and pleasure. M. Maurepas, however, calculated erroneously, for several important changes were effected by her means. M. de Calonne's promotion was owing to the influence of the Duchess de Polignac with the Queen: but the latter, in her heart, disapproved the nomination, always distrusted his measures, and rarely or never saw him; while public rumour was occupied in describing her and her supposed favorite as revelling at will in the treasures of the Comptroller-general.

We must not omit what Mad. Campan has told us relative to Beaumarchais, and his "Marriage of Figaro." Such was the reputation which this author had derived from "The Barber of Seville," that from that moment he seems to have cherished the ambition of giving an intellectual impulse to the capital by a species of drama, holding out to popular derision the most sacred maxims of virtue and of morals. The police of

course forbade a piece of that description to be acted; but this circumstance excited the more curiosity concerning it. The Baron de Breteuil and the Polignacs were avowedly its patrons: but the King, who was induced by the most pressing solicitations to hear it read, finally decided against its appearance. The author, however, eventually triumphed in the success of his play, and Madame Campan ascribes great influence to it in exciting the popular feelings which afterward produced such excesses.

In speaking of different measures of state, some of which are regarded by Madame Campan as preparatory of the Revolution, she particularly refers to the regulations adopted in the army and the church. With respect to the first, she mentions the King's edict, which 'declared all officers not noble by four generations incapable of filling the rank of captain, and denied all military rank to those who were not gentlemen, excepting sons of the Chevaliers de St. Louis.' As to the church, also, it was a 'decision of the court that all ecclesiastical benefices, from the humblest priory up to the richest abbey, should in future be appendages to nobility.' Madame C. justly remarks on the effects which such regulations must produce on the minds and fortunes of persons in the middle ranks of life, and exclaims; 'Can we be astonished at the part shortly afterward taken by the deputies of the *third estate*, when called to the States-general?' — The folly and mischief of such conduct scarcely require a word; yet a *hint* on the subject is not altogether without its application in our own country.

An anecdote respecting that equivocal being, the Chevalier or Chevaliere d'Eon, occurs at p. 187., which would at one time have been curious: but, since the ascertainment of his real sex, and his death, all interest about him seems to have also expired.

Of the great Dr. Franklin we have likewise some particulars. At p. 229., he is erroneously called a *physician*; and in the next page we have an anecdote of the King making a present to the Countess Diana de Polignac, who was an enthusiast in the American cause, of a *vase de nuit* with a portrait of the Doctor at the bottom. In the supplementary papers, p. 372., are extracts from another work relative to Franklin and his coadjutor Silas Deane: to the latter of whom is attributed the credit of having fixed the wavering policy of France in their favor, by boldly telling the Minister of the Marine 'that unless within forty-eight hours he made up his mind to get the treaty of alliance between France and North America signed, he (Deane) would negotiate with England for

for a reconciliation.' Franklin is said to have thought that all was lost by this step of his colleague, but found every thing gained by it.

The Emperor Joseph appears several times in this work; and in the *Historical Illustrations* are some excellent letters written by him. Two of them, each addressed 'to a Lady,' we cannot refrain from copying.

' Madam,

' I do not think that it is amongst the duties of a monarch to grant places to one of his subjects, merely because he is a gentleman. That, however, is the inference from the request you have made to me. Your late husband was, you say, a distinguished General, a gentleman of good family; and thence you conclude, that my kindness to your family can do no less than give a company of foot to your second son, lately returned from his travels.

' Madam, a man may be the son of a General, and yet have no talent for command. A man may be of a good family, and yet possess no other merit than that which he owes to chance, the name of gentleman.

' I know your son, and I know what makes the soldier; and this two-fold knowledge convinces me that your son has not the disposition of a warrior, and that he is too full of his birth to leave the country a hope of his ever rendering it any important service.

' What you are to be pitied for, Madam, is, that your son is not fit either for an officer, a statesman, or a priest; in a word, that he is nothing more than a gentleman, in the most extended acceptation of the word.

' You may be thankful to that destiny, which, in refusing talents to your son, has taken care to put him in possession of great wealth, which will sufficiently compensate him for other deficiencies, and enable him, at the same time, to dispense with any favour from me.

' I hope you will be impartial enough, to feel the reasons which prompt me to refuse your request. It may be disagreeable to you, but I consider it necessary. Farewell, Madam,

' Your sincere well-wisher,

' *Lachsenburg, 4th August, 1787.*

JOSEPH.

' Madam,

' You know my disposition; you are not ignorant that the society of the ladies is to me a mere recreation, and that I have never sacrificed my principles to the fair sex. I pay but little attention to recommendations, and I only take them into consideration, when the person, in whose behalf I may be solicited, possesses real merit.

' Two of your sons are already loaded with favours. The eldest, who is not yet twenty, is chief of a squadron in my army, and the younger has obtained a prebend at Cologne, from the Elector my brother. What would you have more? Would you have the first a General, and the second a bishop?

‘ In France you may see colonels in leading-strings ; and in Spain, the royal princes command armies even at eighteen ; hence Prince Stahremberg forced them to retreat so often, that they were never able, all the rest of their lives, to comprehend any other manœuvre.

‘ It is necessary to be sincere at court, and severe in the field, stoical without obduracy, magnanimous without weakness, and to gain the esteem of our enemies by the justice of our actions ; and this, Madam, is what I aim at.

‘ Vienna, September, 1787.

JOSEPH.

‘ (Extract from the unedited letters from Joseph II., published at Paris, by Persan, 1822.)’

Vol. ii. is occupied chiefly with the affair of the diamond-necklace, and with all the revolutionary horrors which effected the death of the King and the Queen, and others of his family. It has also a large Appendix of Historical Illustrations, Anecdotes, &c., many of them very interesting. We have, however, already gone so much into detail, that it is absolutely impossible for us to extend our remarks and quotations ; and we conclude with acknowledging that we have read these *Memoirs* with satisfaction, as affording strong and direct evidence to the innocence of Marie Antoinette, in those particulars of her life in which she was abominably slandered before and during the Revolution. Providential elucidations of human character, from calumnies currently believed, and not contradicted, are of frequent occurrence in human affairs, and illustrate a striking part of the Divine government, — the ultimate and destined triumph of truth.

Our ample quotations will have shewn how the translator has executed his task : but we must add that he has also rendered into English verse the various poetic scraps which occur, with considerable accuracy and address.

ART. II. *Recollections of the Peninsula.* By the Author of “ Sketches of India.” 8vo. 8s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

THE “ Sketches of India” by this author were noticed with approbation in our xcixth vol. p. 157., but his present ‘ *Recollections*’ are still more picturesque and interesting. Few writers, indeed, who are not poets by profession, have the art of painting in words, with so much vividness and distinctness, the various objects which surround their view. He shews us the Peninsula as it were in a *camera obscura* ; his epitome of nature preserves not only the relative proportions and motley coloring of the scene, but the motion and mutability of life :

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it now sparkles with sunshine, then darkens with storm, and is next variegated with the glittering processions of warfare.

We learn from the Preface that the writer passed about five years in Portugal and Spain during the peninsular war, that is, from 1809 to 1814; sometimes engaged in active service, and sometimes tediously detained by illness or in garrison. He does not attempt a dated journal of his progresses and retreats, but contents himself with describing those places, manners, and actions, which made most impression on his memory: selecting the stimulant moments of his sojourn, and often concealing the orderly thread of time and place, which at such unequal distances served to string together so many precious reminiscences. The book may best be judged by some specimens; and it is scarcely possible to open it without seeing useful and lively remarks, or *descriptions indescribably descriptive*.

The first reception of the troops at Santarem is thus related:

'After an hour's labour in the morning, finding we made little or no way by water, we landed and marched to Santarem. The situation of this city is very striking; it is built on bold elevated ground, hanging directly over the Tagus, the southern bank of which it completely commands. The regiment was quartered for the night in a convent, and I received a billet on a private house. At the door of it, I was met by the owner, a gentlemanlike looking well-dressed man of about sixty, and of a very mild, pleasing address: he led the way to a neat apartment, and a pretty bed-chamber. I was covered with dust and dirt, and declined them as too good; but how was my confusion increased, when my host himself brought me water in a silver basin to wash, while his good lady presented me with chocolate, bearing it herself on a salver. I feared that they had mistaken my rank from my two epaulettes, and I explained to them that I was a simple lieutenant. No; they well knew my rank, but did not pay me the less attention: they perfumed my chamber with rose-water, took off my knapsack with their own hands, and then left me to refresh myself by washing and dressing, and to recover from the pleasing astonishment, into which their cordial and polite reception had thrown me. In the evening my party dined here, and the worthy host presented us with some magnums of fine old wine, and the choicest fruit. We made scruples; he over-ruled them with true and unaffected hospitality, and we, in return, pressed on his acceptance six bottles of excellent Sauterne, the remains of our small stock of French wine.

'Such was my treatment in the first billet I ever entered in Portugal, and such, with *very few* exceptions, was the character of the reception given by Portuguese of all classes, according to their means, at the commencement of the Peninsula struggle, to the British army: rich and poor, the clergy and laity, the fidalgo

and the peasant, all expressed an eagerness to serve, and a readiness to honour us. In these early marches the villa, the monastery, and the cottage were thrown open at the approach of our troops; the best apartments, the neatest cells, the humble but only beds, were all resigned to the march-worn officers and men, with undisguised cheerfulness. It is with pain I am compelled to confess, that the manners of my strange, but well-meaning, countrymen soon wrought a change in the kind dispositions of this people. When they saw many assume as a right all which they had accorded from politeness, and receive their respectful attentions and cordial services as expressions of homage, due to the courage, wealth, and power of the British nation;—when the simplicity of their manners, their frugality, the sparseness of their diet, the peculiarities of their dress, and their religious prejudices were made the subjects of derision and ridicule;—when they witnessed scenes of brutal intoxication, and were occasionally exposed to vulgar insult, from uneducated and over-bearing Englishmen;—when, I say, all this occurred, they began to examine our individual titles to their esteem; they were, often, very soon disenchanted; and the spirit which we had awakened in them manifested itself in various acts of neglect, rudeness, and even resentment. The English are admired, not only in Portugal, but over all Europe, as a free, an enlightened, and a brave people, but they cannot make themselves beloved; they are not content with being great, they must be thought so, and told so. They will not bend with good humour to the customs of other nations, nor will they condescend to soothe (flatter they never do) the harmless self-love of friendly foreigners. No: wherever they march or travel, they bear with them a haughty air of conscious superiority, and expect that their customs, habits, and opinions should supersede, or at least suspend, those of all the countries through which they pass. Among liberal minded and well-educated Englishmen, there will ever be many bright exceptions to this general picture; and they perhaps will be the first to confess, that this portrait of my travelling countrymen has not been too highly coloured.'

However mortifying to the national vanity it may be to observe such facts, yet the denunciation of them is the most likely remedy for the evil. Those manners are most polite which are most cosmopolite, which please every where and at all times, and which are free from the unnatural and local peculiarities of particular places and ages. English manners have not this advantage, but French manners have, as must be known to all who have travelled.

'My opinions,' says the author, 'of the moral excellence of soldiers is very superior to that generally entertained; and I think that we should find as much virtue, and as many amiable qualities, among ten thousand soldiers, as among a similar number of individuals, taken, without selection, from the bosom of civil society.'

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It will be remarked by those who live among soldiers, that they are charitable and generous, kind to children, and fond of dumb animals; add to this, a frequent exposure to hardship, privation, and danger, make them friendly, and ready to assist each other. Nor are they without a just and laudable pride. The worthless characters who are to be met with in every regiment (and society) are generally shunned; nor have I ever seen an expression of discontent on their countenances at the just punishment of a moral offender.

The battle of Albuera is well described, militarily, (p. 159 to 160) and is stated to have been inadequately valued by the historians of the war. The account concludes with these reflections:

“How shall I picture the British soldier going into action? He is neither heated by brandy, stimulated by the hope of plunder, or inflamed by the deadly feelings of revenge; he does not even indulge in expressions of animosity against his foes; he moves forward, confident of victory, never dreams of the possibility of defeat, and braves death with all the accompanying horrors of laceration and torture, with the most cheerful intrepidity. Enough of joy and triumph. The roar of the battle is hushed; the hurry of action is over; let us walk over the corpse-encumbered field. Look around,—behold thousands of slain, thousands of wounded, writhing with anguish, and groaning with agony and despair. Move a little this way, here lie four officers of the French hussards, all corpses. Why, that boy cannot have numbered eighteen years? How beautiful, how serene a countenance! Perhaps, on the banks of the murmuring and peaceful Loire, some mother thinks anxiously of this her darling child. Here fought the third brigade; here the fusiliers, how thick these heroes lie! Most of the bodies are already stripped; rank is no longer distinguished. Yes: this must have been an officer; look at the delicate whiteness of his hands, and observe on his finger the mark of his ring. What manly beauty; what a smile still plays upon his lip! He fell, perhaps, beneath his colours; died easily; he is to be envied! Here charged the Polish lancers; not long ago, the trampling of horses, the shout, the cry, the prayer, the death-stroke, all mingled their wild sounds on this spot; it is now, but for a few fitful and stifled groans, as silent as the grave. What is this? A battered trumpet; the breath which filled, this morning, its mighty tone, has fled, perhaps, for ever. And here again, a broken lance. Is this the muscular arm that wielded it? ’Twas vigorous, and slew, perhaps, a victim on this field; it is now unnerved by death. Look at the contraction of this body, and the anguish of these features; eight times has some lance pierced this frame. Here again lie headless trunks, and bodies torn and struck down by cannon-shot; such death is sudden, horrid, but ’tis merciful. Who are these, that catch every moment at our coats, and cling to our feet, in such a humble attitude? The wounded soldiers of the enemy, who are imploring British protection from

the exasperated and revengeful Spaniards. What a proud compliment to our country !

Of the antiquities at Merida we find an excellent description : but perhaps the following sketch of Toledo will be considered to have more variety :

The cathedral of Toledo is deservedly the first object of attention with every stranger. I passed three hours in it, but must not attempt a minute description of it. It is upwards of four hundred feet in length, and more than two hundred in width. It is built entirely of freestone and marble. Its gates are of bronze, most curiously wrought. The interior of this magnificent temple is richly and splendidly decorated, and corresponds most fully with the noble appearance of its exterior. I speak not, however, of shrines refulgent with gold, and sparkling with jewels ; of silver statues, costly plate, and embroidered vestments, covered with pearls and precious stones. The treasures and wealth of this cathedral, inferior, perhaps, only to those of the famed Loretto, have disappeared. They have been torn forth by the daring hand of plunder, a circumstance no one can regret ; for they may now, eventually, benefit society, by encouraging industry, and rewarding exertion. I speak of ornaments which still remain, because their removal would have been impossible, and their destruction useless : of grand monuments, of tombs, screens, and altars, adorned with sculpture, or carved with the most delicate and elaborate execution. A fine screen of marble, which is upwards of fifty feet in height, and covered with relief, representing the *Ascension*, attracts and rivets the attention of every beholder. Many of the best pictures this church could once boast the possession of, have been removed ; but in the cloisters are several fine Scripture paintings by Bayeu, whose designs and colouring are very pleasing. I heard mass, but was not struck with any thing so grand in the ceremonial, as I had, in such a place, expected. The organ, indeed, was excellent, and the singing good ; but had it not been for the noble pile of building above me, I could hardly have supposed the service to be that, at which the primate of all Spain had been wont to assist. The truth, however, was, that the day of the pomp, pride, and power of this cathedral was gone by. Six hundred ecclesiastics once belonged to the service of it, and they were all well provided for. The present number of officiating priests is inconsiderable ; nor are they now either powerful or wealthy. The memory of the great and good Cardinal Ximenes is greatly venerated in Toledo, and a prayer for his soul is repeated daily at the close of high mass.

One word more ; this venerable church has been built nearly nine hundred years ; has been successively possessed by Moors and Christians, and was once surrounded by the habitations of two hundred thousand people ; among whom, arts, sciences, and manufactures, were busily promoted and encouraged. Of churches, colleges, convents, hospitals, and chapels, upwards of ninety once adorned

adorned the streets and squares of this city. It now reckons about six thousand houses, and thirty thousand inhabitants.

I walked from the cathedral to the Alcazar, a palace built on the site of the ancient residence of the Gothic kings, by Charles the Fifth, and long occupied by him. Its grand staircase and spacious gallery, no longer crowded with guards and courtiers, are now dirty, deserted, and silent. This edifice, however, though neglected and decaying, still wears a stately and imposing aspect; and its handsome front, immense quadrangle, and elegant colonnade, declare it to have been the pride and ornament of a happier period. Its situation is very commanding; it stands on the edge of a rocky precipice, nearly perpendicular; at the bottom of which, but full five hundred feet below it, the Tagus flows. As I toiled through the steep, narrow, inconvenient, streets, I never felt one moment of impatience: for the extreme antiquity of this city gives it an irresistible character of interest; and the *religio loci* always operates most delightfully on the fancy. Hannibal won this spot for Carthage; Romans dwelt in it; Gothic kings reigned in it; Moors have possessed it, and some of the turretted walls still surrounding it were built by them; Spaniards, with their blood, last purchased, and still hold it. What a flight for the imagination! to travel back, to conjure up the various scenes acted in the city, and to see sovereigns, warriors, and prelates, whose mouldering dust now sleeps beneath your feet, pass in review before you! So wonderful, however, are the powers of the human mind, that such an indulgence of thought is not only possible, but easy; nor is it denied even to one who has burst half-educated from the study, and carried with him to the camp little but the imperfect, though fond, recollections of his earlier pursuits.

In the afternoon, I dined with a friend in his billet; and we, who had taken our meals the day before in a cottage-chamber not eight feet square, were now seated in an apartment hung with the richest crimson damask, filled with heavy antique furniture, and, indeed, so gloomily magnificent, as to very greatly interfere with comfort, if not to oppress the spirits.

In the evening we went to the theatre: the play was over, but we were much entertained with a broad, ridiculous farce of two or three scenes, which was acted with some spirit; a boy and girl danced some boleros and fandangos prettily; but, upon the whole, the amusements hardly repaid you for the annoyance of sitting in a dirty, unadorned, and ill-lighted theatre, and for the poor and wretched appearance of almost all the performers. On leaving the theatre, we bent our steps to the Archbishop's palace, where a ball was given in honour of our arrival. The streets were all illuminated; the façade of the palace, and the dome of the cathedral, most brilliantly and tastefully lighted up, produced a very fine effect. Among the dark sparkling eyes and olive complexions of the ladies, who were dancing in the ball-room, one girl with light blue eyes, and exceedingly fair, attracted universal notice. On enquiry I found that she was an orphan, the daughter of Irish parents, who had lived and died in Madrid; and that she had

had been sent by the government to the Collegio de Damselles, in this city; a very noble institution, where unfortunate young ladies of rank are supported with comfort and elegance; educated with great liberality, and portioned and given in marriage by the crown. The ball was kept up with great spirit till a late hour, and though I could not venture to join in the waltz, I sat very happily, busied in contemplating the cheerful scene. I felt great interest about the pretty orphan, whom I heard, sometimes, attempt a little English to her partner, but with a very foreign accent. How fond such a girl must necessarily become of the husband of her choice; — no bosom to lean upon but his; — no parents, no brothers, no sisters, to claim a share in the generous affections of her youthful heart. Poor girl! I have not forgot the shades which, at times, even in the lively movements of the dance, stole over your mild countenance; and the purest pleasure I enjoyed that evening, was pitying you.

If this author distinguished himself at Albuera, he was unfortunate, though equally deserving, at Maya, where the French took him prisoner; and with this incident the book concludes. We hope that his subsequent adventures will yet excite new 'Recollections.'

Aut. III. *A Historical and Topographical Essay upon the Islands of Corfu, Lefkada, Cephalonia, Ithaca, and Zante: with Remarks upon the Character, Manners, and Customs of the Ionian Greeks; Descriptions of the Scenery and Remains of Antiquity discovered therein, and Reflections upon the Cyclopean Ruins. Illustrated by Maps and Sketches. By William Goodisson, A.B. Assistant-Surgeon in his Majesty's 75th Regiment. 8vo. pp. 267. 12s. Boards. Underwood. 1822.*

THIS is an unpresuming little work, ushered into the world without the attractions of elegant type and fine paper, but conveying much useful information concerning the Seven Islands. Were we, however, inclined to mingle some reproof with this approbation, it would be justified by the useless parade of disquisitions collected from Homer and other writers of antiquity, in a work calculated for popular use and reference. Such a task might have been left to the professed scholar, for Mr. Goodisson modestly disavows his pretensions to interest the learned class of his readers. — So much latitude must necessarily be indulged to poetic description, that, while we are convinced that Homer is the best geographer by whom ancient Ionia has been described, it would be notwithstanding the idlest dream of speculation to look for the exact topography of the Grecian islands in the generalities of his delineations. With the *Odyssey* in our hand, the imagination would indeed make a great many delightful excursions; and

and it would be no difficult matter, in the vicinity of the ancient Corcyra, to form the delightful day-dream of beholding the very spot on which Ulysses formerly swam to shore, as described in the fifth book of that poem; or to suppose that the Potamo, which runs into the bay of Corfu, is the Jove-flowing river which received him, and where he was found by Nausicaa. We may imagine also the temple of Neptune, the grove of Pallas, the fountain and the gardens of Alcinous, amid the delightful scenery of this beautiful island. The illusion, however, soon vanishes. Not a vestige exists that can be traced to the city of the Phæacians; and we are awakened from the enchanted scenes which fancy had spread around us, to the debates and controversies of scholars and antiquaries. We are fully disposed to acquiesce in the more sober deductions of the present author.

However speculative the notions of the reality of the city of the Phæacians may be, the ruins upon the isthmus in the vicinity of Castrades afford direct evidence of the existence of a great and extensive city, which the inscriptions and coins found there indicate to have been the less ancient Corcyra. Although most of the traces of this city are literally levelled with the dust, sufficient marks remain above ground, as broken pottery and tiles, and more have been discovered deeply buried in the soil, to prove its original extent and magnificence. The superficial indications are met with soon after passing out of the Porta Reale at Corfu, and are found scattered over a space of at least six miles in circumference. And if we take into the calculation the ancient columns found in the sea at Perama, (described in the French Military Report, drawn up by the engineers employed in cutting the ditch across the isthmus,) we must conclude, that the city of Corcyra reached this point, sweeping round the whole margin of the lake, and terminating at Perama, the passage where the ferry-boat plies across its narrow entrance to the place called the One-Gun Battery. In this space are scattered fragments of fluted columns of the Doric, and a few of the Ionic order, broken pieces of pottery, of excellent workmanship, and beautifully ornamented, mosaic, large masses of square stone, and foundations of great buildings, buried many feet under the surface. In digging the ditch across the isthmus, the French engineers came upon an aqueduct in three points, the source of which they suppose was at Mount St. Ellena. The ingenious Mr. Prossalepi of Corfu imagines, that some physical change must have taken place in the topography, since the construction of the aqueduct: for, at present, there is no source of water, nor appearance of any place that could have furnished it, any where near its direction. The line followed up leads to a little olive-mountain, which terminates by a precipitous descent into the Govino bay, having no spring, and being incapable of ever supplying one. The aqueduct fed a fountain at a temple which was dedicated to Apollo. An oblong, conical,

conical, stone pillar, the lower half fluted and cylindrical, marked the spot with the following inscription in very old letters upon the top: ΠΟΤΕ ΠΥΘΑΙΟΣ (the Pythian fountain). The pillar is about twelve feet high, and is to be seen at Mr. Prossalendi's museum, together with many other interesting pieces of architecture and sculpture of the ancient Corcyra. Two branches of the aqueduct above mentioned were found leading to the base of the pillar, and near it is a temple, marked out by the plinths of a quadrangular colonnade, which the French uncovered in digging the great wet ditch.

We have always questioned the policy of retaining Corfu in time of peace. Commanding the entrance of the Adriatic, it might indeed afford considerable protection to an enemy's fleet: but, in a political point of view, it is a troublesome and unprofitable possession. The town contains about 17,000 inhabitants, 60,000 being the computation for the whole island. It is a place of great strength, from the number and position of the out-works, a part of the south and the whole of the north wall being washed by the sea; and they are so extensive as to require 10,000 men to defend them. At present, the revenue is inadequate to the cost of repairing them. The garrison, when Mr. G. was there, consisted of one whole regiment, and two companies of artillery.* The town is wretchedly constructed, and, before the arrival of the British, was nearly impassable from its filth and litter: but great improvements have been recently made; and Mr. Goodisson tells us that 'it would be difficult for a person, who had been absent from Corfu for some years, to recognize the place.'

The advantages arising to this people from their connection with England are no where better shewn than in the present regulations of the police. Assassination is now no more heard of. The removal of the butchers' and vegetable stalls, with the fishmongers, to regular markets constructed outside the walls, has added to the comforts of the inhabitants in point of cleanliness, and certainly contributed mainly to the increased salubrity of the place. The widening of part of the principal street, by pulling down several old tottering Venetian balconies, has removed a source of danger, and has also added to the healthfulness of the place, by admitting a more free ventilation. Notwithstanding all this, much remains to be done; and in fact nothing but the demolition of the whole town in rear of the houses on the esplanade, and building it upon a new plan, can ever render it clean or comfortable.

The climate is dangerous in summer; the clay, which is the substratum of all the low lands, as well as of the lesser

* At present, we believe, there are three or four British regiments at Corfu.

Mountains, being composed of argillaceous soil with lime-stone, and emitting that mixed heat and moisture which is particularly deleterious.

1 Santa-Maura, the antient Leucadia, a name which it still retains among the peasantry, is about 30 miles long, and 12 broad; separated from old Greece by a narrow channel which is sometimes fordable, and not exceeding 100 yards in breadth. The place assigned for the unfortunate leap of Sappho is the southern promontory of the island, called Capo Ducato.

11 The cliffs here are of a splendid whiteness, from which the ancient name Leucadia is said to have been derived. Secondary ridges traverse the island in a direction generally towards the southward and eastward: they are composed of crystallized, compact, fibrous, and earthy carbonate of lime, and of gypsum; the lime, always predominating. The second species of rock occurs frequently in beautiful stratifications, immense tables being piled, horizontally in general, and some with various degrees of obliquity in the dip. They are of greater or less degrees of hardness, probably according to the quantity of carbonate of lime which enters into the composition, and are of various thickness. Some, from their durability and regularity of form, make excellent stones for building. The secondary ridges diverge from the primary, or great ridge, at the centre of the island. The principal of these is a mountain called El Vouno, which is again subdivided into parallel ridges running above the village of Catechori and Porto Englimend. In a ravine which descends from the north-east of Catechori to the southern extremity of the port Englimend, the rock exhibits a very singular appearance: one would imagine that the south-east side had been formed, by a mass which had fallen from the mountain at the opposite side of the ravine; the strata having their edges turned up, and projecting one beyond the other in a series, like a half fallen pack of cards. To the mineralogist the stratification of rock is here very interesting. The greasiness of the stone renders the roads extremely slippery and dangerous. The rock which generally covers the surface is of a very rough appearance, being perforated in every direction by round holes, a form which it assumes, probably, from the action of water, by which it had been covered at its first formation. Stalactites and calcareous spars are found in the crevices, deep below the surface, and in the vaults both artificial and natural.

Along a tract on the north-west of about 20 miles, are many populous villages and much cultivated ground; and owing to its height, this is the most healthful part of the island. Some remarkable features characterize its topography. The north-west coast has no harbour or road, but opposes a mass of perpendicular lime-stone to the great swell which prevails at the bottom of the gulf of Prevesa; and it seems that the action of this water has reduced the island on that side to its present

present form; the detached matter, swept along the coast by the winds from the south and west, and carried round the north-east point of the island, having been deposited in a long line, which constitutes the present isthmus. This is the only mode by which the present appearance of the island is reconcilable with the antient descriptions. The new isthmus, to the formation of which we have just referred, is thus satisfactorily explained by Mr. Goodisson.

From the north-east angle of the island a narrow strip of land, of about four miles in length, and of a very irregular waving line, extends across the mouth of the channel towards the coast of Acarnania, which it reaches within 100 yards; it then runs parallel with that coast for about half a mile, eking out the channel an equal length. From near its extreme point, at a small angle, it sends off a ledge of rocks towards the north, which is of very singular appearance and composition. When seen at even a short distance, it bears a perfect resemblance to a mole running out into the sea, and it is by many believed to have been a work of the Romans. The ledge is about half a mile in length, and from twenty to thirty feet wide, with deep water at each side. Its breadth and direction are nearly uniform throughout, which gives it so much the appearance of a work of art. The rock of which it is composed consists of gravel and sand, accumulated there by the water, and formed, according to the size of the particles so brought together, into sand-stone or pudding-stone. The substance which unites them is become as hard as the particles themselves; for upon breaking the mass with a hammer, the fracture goes through them equally with the interstitial matter. The whole forms an exceedingly hard stone, capable of taking a certain degree of polish. It is used for building, as also for making stones for flour-mills and oil-presses. The isthmus seems to have been formed upon this rock as a basis; the latter is found along its whole line under the loose gravel, at the sea-water edge, and appears to be rapidly advancing. In October, 1818, the men employed in raising stones out of the sea, for the construction of the new mole, took up the splinter of a shell which was covered with an incrustation of breccia above three inches thick. The iron of the shell was oxidizing, and the red oxide gradually incorporated with the stone as it formed. The splinter had lain there probably since the siege in 1810.

This process seems to be effected by a deposition of the calcareous matter, which had been washed away from the mountains, and held suspended or dissolved in the water. Masses of the rock are found in a state of decomposition, from the disintegration of the connecting medium, which appears to be pure carbonate of lime. A shelf of gravel, which had been left by the water, and was for several days exposed to a strong sun, was observed to feel crisp upon the surface; a white matter being deposited amongst the particles, which dissolved upon the tongue, giving the flavour of common salt. Here the formation of the stone was probably detected in its very infancy; and the connecting matter may be
always

always in the first instance muriate of soda, and carbonate of lime. Specimens are to be seen where the larger particles of gravel are united by minute intermediate particles of sand, themselves cohering by means of this matter. The pure common salt is found crystallized, in all the little cavities in the rock along the beach, where the sea-water had been left after a high wind or tide, and was afterwards evaporated. This becomes enveloped by the stone as it forms, and hence may be accounted for the deposits of sea-salt found in the heart of stone of this species. All the masses of rock formed in this way, and more particularly the remarkable ledge above described, have an inclination to the horizon; forming an angle to the surface of the sea, the same as that of the beach in general.

As the isthmus approaches the continent, it expands at about the distance of a mile into a little peninsula, on which is situated the castle; and, about 100 years ago, here stood the small town of Santa Maura, connected with the modern town by a bridge of only $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and nearly a mile in length. In all probability, the isthmus, which is continually enlarging, did not exist in the time of Strabo; for he does not mention either it or the salt-lake, which is an expansion of the canal between Santa Maura and the continent. By the formation of the isthmus, the lake was cut off from the outer body of water, and could not have existed when that accurate geographer made his survey; and the modern isthmus is at least three miles distant from the one that was formed by the canal cut by the Corinthians, which he describes.—The following is an interesting and correct picture of the scenery of Leucadia:

‘ Although mountainous and uncultivated in its general appearance, much beautiful and picturesque scenery will be found in Santa Maura. In rear of the city is a fine plain, extending about two miles in length and one in breadth. It consists of a rich alluvial soil, which is highly susceptible of cultivation, but has been appropriated almost solely to the production of the olive, of which a magnificent wood covers almost the whole. Near the town, and towards the water, a small part of it is laid out in vineyards and fruit-gardens, with a few fields of corn, all of which are extremely productive. A great quantity of vegetables are grown here, with which the market is well supplied, as well as with abundance of fruit. The whole of the part under gardens is at all times irrigable from a large and constant spring, whence the water is drawn in rills, made at pleasure, over any part of the plain which is below its level. The wood is intersected by two or three good roads, which, from their straightness, the dark shade thrown upon them by the tall olives, and the green level of the plain, remind one of the fine avenues of our English country-seats. The whole of the plain, with the wood, the gardens, and the town, is shut

shut in by a fine sweep of mountain, forming a delightful landscape; the beauty of the view is, however, greatly enhanced by changing the point of sight, as the mountain is ascended, and from the heights a lovely picture is indeed exhibited to a contemplative mind: the waving foliage of the wood is now only seen stretched at the spectator's feet like a carpet, smooth and unbroken from the mountain-base to the lake; where, in that beautiful mirror, a second scene of stillness and repose steals upon the eye, until the grand and picturesque scenery of the gulf of Arta, including the promontory of Actium, calls up a train of new ideas. Possibly the events of past ages now occupy the mind in succession, and the ideas of distance in time and space gradually enlarging together, our attention becomes at last fixed upon the blue mass of Pindus in the remote distance, beyond which the ideas of eternity and infinity of space seem, as it were, to blend together.

^b The temperature in summer varies from 80° to 90° of Fahrenheit, in the winter from 40° to 60°. These depressions, which are very sudden, are produced by the wind which passes over the snowy ridge of Pindus. The sirocco often prevails here for three successive days, when the climate becomes peculiarly unhealthy. Earthquakes are also very frequent; and in 1783 Santa Maura felt the extensive shock which nearly desolated the two Sicilies. In common with the other islands, it grows little corn, the vine and olive being almost exclusively cultivated; but it produces also salt; the making of which, and fishing, constitute a large portion of the revenue of the inhabitants. It is still more defective in pasture than in arable land, the whole of the beef and mutton being supplied from Albania. Mr. Goodisson's estimate of the population is about 17,000: but Dr. Holland, if we recollect rightly, gives it 18,000.

Mr. G. must excuse us for not following him in his delightful excursion through the mountain-scenery of this romantic spot: the well-informed traveller, to whom we have just alluded, having impressed on us all that is peculiarly interesting in the island; and nothing can have occurred since his tour in 1812, and the still more recent visit of Mr. Hughes, to confer either novelty or importance on subsequent details.

Southward of Santa Maura, and separated from the coast of Acarnania by a channel 15 miles broad, is Thiaka, the antient Ithaca, (as Mr. Goodisson, in compliance with the prevailing hypothesis, is inclined to suppose,) and the island described by Homer as the residence of Ulysses. It is 15 miles long, but irregular in its breadth. We shall not enter into the question of its classical identity, nor dispute the antient names which are now applied so confidently to the local features of the island: but, referring the reader to the splendid work of

Sir William Gell for information on these difficult points, we shall now confine ourselves to its present state and condition.

The soil is secondary lime-stone, so barren as scarcely to furnish corn for four months' subsistence: but the currant and the vine flourish. The population is about 8000, and the annual revenue sometimes has amounted to 10,000 Spanish dollars. Vathi is the modern capital, and contains 2250 inhabitants.

It is remarkable for its health and cleanliness; the principal street runs along the sea-side, and is about a mile in length: the houses are all built of stone. Although few of the Ithacans are rich, they are all so far placed above want, that begging alms is unknown amongst them. Two causes may be assigned for this happy medium, in their circumstances: the first arising in the industry of the inhabitants themselves. They are greatly attached to a sea-faring life, not less than one-third of the effective part of the male population was afloat in April, 1819, busied in carrying on the commerce of the neighbouring islands, as well as that of their own. They build vessels of two hundred tons burthen and upwards, the owners having many of different classes, and being at the same time the proprietors of lands and houses. They also find employment upon the continent when their agricultural labour is completed at home. The absentees from the island accounted for in this way have sometimes amounted by the return to five hundred. The second cause, for the comparative equalisation of property amongst the Ithacans, originated in the necessity under which the different governments had been placed in former times of giving encouragement to settlers from the neighbouring islands, in order to keep up the population: a decree exists in the archives of the island, proposing a grant of land to strangers, for the purpose of effecting its repopulation, as it had then become nearly uninhabited. The Ithacans are reckoned expert sailors, and to their excessive fondness for the sea, the evil of emigration is in a great measure to be attributed.

Cephalonia (*Κεφαλληνία*) is generally reckoned to be 100 miles in circumference, and its population is computed at 60,000. Its richest and most picturesque parts are at the southern extremity of the island, and round the base of mount Enos.

Argostoli and Lixuri, the only towns now in the island, seemed to have shared the honours and advantages of a metropolis between them, until the establishing of the courts of justice, of the local government, and offices connected with it, and of the headquarters of the British garrison at Argostoli; since which a new impulse has been given to speculations in building, and the purchase of lands; so that the latter town has more the appearance of activity and stir, than any other in the islands. There are about 5000 inhabitants here, and the same number in the town of Lixuri; the circumstances above mentioned have, however, drawn away, and still continue to entice, many settlers from Lixuri to

Argostoli. The houses are all built of stone and of very solid workmanship, to enable them to withstand the shocks of earthquake, which are very frequent, and occasionally very violent: the better, to effect this purpose, the best constructed have iron clamps in various parts of the walls, and generally at each corner is a raised pilaster of cut stone; this and other little architectural ornaments are executed in the Venetian manner. The low and paltry dwellings erected upon the foundation of many others of these palaces, as they are called, give awful memento; to the inmates of these latter stately edifices, of what they may expect from earthquakes. The town consists of one long street, which runs close by the beach; it is tolerably clean and well built. The water is deep, which renders the air pure, excepting during a long prevalence of the sirocco wind in the hot weather, which, with other inconveniences, carries most offensive exhalations from the shallow part of the inlet situated to the southward of the town. These proved highly deleterious to the inhabitants and the garrison in the summer of 1815: in that season no less than eighty soldiers out of one company of the 14th regiment were carried off by remittent fever.

A little quadrangle occupies the centre of the town, where the markets are held; this has been lately begun to be flagged; with tomb-stones brought from the ruins of Samos; a few letters, rudely inscribed may be traced upon some of them, but all now nearly obliterated. A public work of more utility however does, great credit to the spirit of the inhabitants, at whose expense it was completed, together with the contributions of other islanders concerned. This is the bridge of Trapano, which crosses the gulf, at the southern extremity of Argostoli, affording an excellent road between the town and country, by which the communication is shortened four or five miles, and an almost impracticable mountain road round the lake avoided to the peasants, who have to convey their goods to the market in the city. The walls of the bridge are of cut lime-stone, and instead of arches, strong planks of oak are thrown across connecting the piers horizontally, by which a most excellent, wide, and level road is carried over this angle of the lake. The centre is occupied by a little insulated platform, in the middle of which is a pyramid, containing an inscription in four different languages, one upon each side. The inscription is, "To the Glory of the British Nation, the Inhabitants of Cephalonia, 1812."

Zante, situated to the south of the islands just mentioned, we have always been taught to consider as the most beautiful and fertile of the Polynesia; the greater part of its surface consisting of an immense plain of one continuous vineyard, interspersed with groves of olives, oranges, and other fruit-trees. It is about sixty miles in circumference: but the ancient epithet, "*nemorosa*," does not at present characterize its scenery; unless the broken ridges of the horizontal strata along

along the eastern range of its mountains, which are beautifully fringed with olive groves, might authorize that denomination. Of the dreadful visitation of 1820, which occurred in this island, Mr. Goodisson translates a detailed account from a Corfu paper. 'The official return of damages sustained was as follows. Seventy-nine houses entirely destroyed, eight hundred and seven houses much damaged, eight persons killed, and twenty-nine with wounds and contusions.'

It is mentioned as a singular fact that, numerous as are the earthquakes experienced in these islands, they are seldom simultaneous in any two; an interval of more than 24 hours, and generally of many days, taking place between any two shocks: from which Mr. Goodisson rationally infers that the cause, which he conceives to be electricity, does not lie deeper than the superficial strata in each island. The town of Zante is regularly built, on the curve of a bay which extends nearly two miles; and the uniformity of the descent, on which it stands, gives it a picturesque and pleasing effect.

'The many steeples and spires with which it is ornamented, built in the Venetian manner, add considerably to the beauty of the whole, and to a stranger, arrived at anchor in the night, the scene opening at once in the morning, with the busy tolling of bells, and the harbour-bustle, excites a sensation indescribably delightful; heightened as it is by the usual cool serenity of the hour, and the reflection, perhaps, of having completed a sea-voyage, the pleasure of which those who dislike the sea can best appreciate. The heights are crowded with groves of orange and lemon trees, through which are thickly scattered the beautiful villas of the rich citizens. The bay terminates in the fine mass of mount Scopò upon the left, and the extremity of the castle-range upon the right: the castle is built upon a hill that literally overhangs the town, and above floats the British flag over a beautiful scene of richness and repose.'

Zante contains about 15,176 persons. The Ionian parliament has voted a large sum of money for the erection of a fine mole, and the work, says Mr. G., is now carrying on through the exertions of Sir P. Ross, the governor of the island. An aqueduct has also been begun, intended to convey a plentiful supply of water from Scopò; that with which the town is furnished at present being extremely bad, on account of the strata of gypsum through which it passes. The total population of the island is upwards of 35,000.

We have already stated our doubts as to the political advantage of these islands to Great Britain. Their revenue is wholly inadequate to their expenditure, although by the new constitution they are liable only to the expences of lodging the troops, viz. those of building barracks and their repairs.

The actual cost of the British force in 1821 was 105,000*l.* sterling; so that the maximum of revenue, which does not exceed 550,000 dollars, would leave only 5000*l.* to cover the civil expenses of the government.

We must now close this article, and Mr. Goodisson's instructive and amusing volume. To the medical student, we would recommend his remarks on the diseases of the islands, formed during a residence of considerable length at Corfù in his professional capacity. His observations on the *diagnoses* of the remittent fever of Santa Maura, and the bilious fevers common in other parts of the Mediterranean, deserve the attention of all medical officers, who may hereafter be called to serve in these islands.

ART. IV. *The Elements of Anglo-Saxon Grammar*, with copious Notes, illustrating the Structure of the Saxon and the Formation of the English Language: and a Grammatical Praxis with a literal English Version: to which are prefixed, Remarks on the History and Use of the Anglo-Saxon, and an Introduction, on the Origin and Progress of Alphabetic Writing, with Critical Remarks by the Rev. Charles O'Connor, D.D., and exemplified by Engravings of Inscriptions, and Fac-similes of Saxon and other ancient Manuscripts. By the Rev. J. Bosworth, M.A. F.A.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 390. 16*s.* Boards. Harding and Co. 1823.

THE history of the Anglo-Saxon language has never been satisfactorily developed. We have grammars and vocabularies of its terms, and translations of Scriptures, homilies, and hymns in the dialect:—laws and chronicles have been promulgated in its idiom;—and war-songs, sagas, entire epic poems, (Judith and Beowulf for instance,) are extant among the remains of its literature:—yet no traces of its vernacular existence any where have descended to our times. The Celts continue to speak their language in the Highlands of Scotland, and the bogs of Ireland; and the Cimbri still talk their *Pelesgic* in Wales and Cornwall: but neither on the banks of the Weser, where the Saxons abounded in Charlemagne's time, nor on those of the Thames, where they numbered Alfred among their kings, does even a *patois* exist which seems ever to have employed the complex inflections of this curious form of language.

The alphabet of the Anglo-Saxons appears clearly to have been borrowed from modern Italy; for it retains the Italian peculiarity of pronouncing the *c* before *e* and *i* as *ch*. Thus the word *witch* in Anglo-Saxon is written *wice*; the word *chaff* is written *ceaf*; the word *orchard* is written *orcird*; the word

word *chide* is written *cidan*, *child*, *oid*, &c. Yet some characters were invented for the use of the Anglo-Saxons that are not extant in the Italian alphabet, such as a single character for *th* and another for *w*. The cases of nouns substantive and adjective are more distinctly marked in Anglo-Saxon, than in any other Gothic dialect; yet of the existence of these cases the vernacular remains are every where faint and evanescent. The *s* of the genitive singular still appears in English; and the *e* of the dative singular remains, or has been restored, in German: but the nominatives plural in *a* and the datives plural in *um* are without a parallel in any living northern tongue; although they are applied in the Edda to an Icelandic dialect, of which the roots often diverge greatly from the common Anglo-Saxon.

Anastasius, in his life of Pope Leo III., mentions a *Schola Saxonum* at Rome as already existing in the year 800, to which young Englishmen were sent to be there brought up as missionaries; and the writers of Anglo-Saxon, whose names are known to us, were mostly educated at this *Schola Saxonum* of the Italians. At least, this is notoriously true of Caedmon, Ælfric, and Alfred, and is highly probable of Bede and the writers of religious tracts in general. The presumption, therefore, seems to be that at this Saxon school of the Italians were devised the forms of Anglo-Saxon grammar; and that the missionaries were ordered to apply them to the various Gothic dialects, as directions to their correspondents at Rome how to construe their communications. Those who first reduce a language to writing may easily have grafted on it forms of inflection not known to the multitude, or never in vernacular use; and with this theory all the phenomena correspond. We suspect, consequently, that our vulgar English is of more ancient date in this country than the merely literary language called Anglo-Saxon, and that the Londoners of Julius Cæsar's time conversed in the language now extant.

Camden, Rapin, and other historical commentators, have spoken of the Saxons as if they first came over with Hengist and Horsa to this island: but the Romans had long before appointed a Count of the Saxon shore, whose jurisdiction included Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, and Kent; so that these shires were already immemorially stocked with a Saxon population; and it does not appear from any names of rivers or towns that the Cimbric, or Welsh, tongue was ever spoken in the eastern half of Britain. Mr. Pinkerton has proved that the Caledonians of Agricola were Goths; and although the dialect spoken northward of the Humber always resembles more the Danish, and the dialect spoken southward of

the Humber always resembled more the Saxon, because the Pika, or pirates, who first colonized these coasts were so descended respectively, yet both these populations were so far mixed that they had dropped for common convenience their originally dissimilar formative syllables: — every *lingua franca*, or mixed form of speech, (the Malay for instance,) being remarkable for paucity of inflections. The sailor easily learns the names of things, and has an interest in retaining them: but he does not easily acquire, and has no interest in remembering, the local mechanism of a foreign dialect.

In the grammar before us, the learned author commences with a dissertation on the stem-tribes of the European north. He does not contradistinguish the Erse and Welsh dialects, but considers them as both belonging to the class Celtic: though to us, their dissimilarity appears so great as to announce tribes in a widely different stage of civilization; the Erse having all the characters of a rude, savage, unwritten tongue, and the Welsh all the characters of a formed and civilized language. We should have preferred, therefore, with Schloetzer, (see his admirable *Nordische Geschichte*,) to make a separate class of the Armorican, Cornish, and Welsh dialects, under the common name of Cimbric; and we would by no means apply the term Cimbric to the Icelandic, which is certainly a Gothic dialect. The Chaldeans, or Celts, — for these denominations seem to have been originally identical, — first flourished along the Euphrates, and supplied a large proportion of the early population of Judea. One division of them settled on the Euxine coast, and bequeathed their name to Galatia. From among these Galatians, probably in consequence of the inroads of Sesostris, that tribe of Gaels appears to have crossed the Euxine, which strolled along the middle zone of Europe, occupied in early ages the north of Italy, laid Rome in ashes during the time of Camillus, gave its name to Gaul, and was finally pushed by the ensuing wave of Cimbri from the mouths of the Loire into Ireland. There the language of this oldest of the northern European tribes is still in some degree preserved: it is said to resemble the Punic scene in Plautus, and has been employed to decypher the soliloquy of Hanno. From Ireland certainly came the Scotch Gaels, or Highlanders, whose speech is therefore called Erse: but an elaborate comparison of their language with the Chaldaic remains is still wanting to complete the proof of a pedigree, which tends to establish their right to be considered as the elder children of human society. Population having begun in the east, the remotest emigrants must have set off first, and

and have multiplied first. The westernmost of the unmixed tribes is the most antient.

It appears unquestionable that the Cimbric tribes form the second great wave of population, which out of Asia overflowed northern Europe. This wave appears to have been put in motion by the conquests of Cyrus. The Erse and the Cimbric languages differ, as do the Chaldee and the Hebrew, rather formally than radically. The Gaelic people carried with them every where the patriarchal usage of naming all the cattle-keepers of a given district after the chieftain on whom they depended; so that children of Dan, children of Judah, is a designation common to a whole province: but the Cimbric people carried with them every where the posterior usage of discriminating families by specific pedigrees. While pasturage was the form of general maintenance, a province was a common property; the range of feed for the cattle of the clan of Abraham was distinguished from that of the clan of Lot: but internally all fared alike, and the lowest shepherd might marry the daughter of the lord of the sept, or tribe. When, however, agriculture began, and with it personal property in land, the rights of ownership could not be ascertained without careful records of descent. It may consequently be inferred that the Gaelic wave of population flowed off from the Asiatic reservoir, while the Chaldees were yet a pastoral people: but that the Cimbric wave flowed off after they were become an agricultural people. Record-keepers, called Druids, or Bards, accompanied the Cimbric; whereas no analogous priests have been traced among the Gaelic tribes.

To the Cimbric succeeded the Gothic wave of population. It was propelled apparently by the conquests of Darius, the son of Hystaspes, who pursued into Thrace the Scythians who infested his northern provinces. The progress of the Goths across the middle zone of Europe has not been traced by our antiquaries with all the industry and accuracy which might have been expected: but Herodotus, a very early historian, throws much light on their migrations; and he notices in the possession of a Scythic king a large copper brewing vat, which is also celebrated in the sagas of Scandinavia. Among the West Goths, or Massa-getai, the Saxons, or Sakai, were early a conspicuous tribe; and they eventually wandered to the lowlands about the mouths of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Rhine, where the sea-faring Saxons appear to have acquired the name of *Piks*, or pirates, as the river-haunting Saxons gained that of *Angles*, or anglers. As the first established seats of passage would convey the first colonists, it may be presumed that Kent received the earliest settlers; next

the estuary of the Thames; and progressively the coast of Norfolk, the Humber, and the Firth of Forth. London seems to be *long town*, and to have been originally named by the Anglo-Saxons.

Notwithstanding the grievous inroads of Norman phraseology which resulted from the conquest of William the First, the English language, according to Mr. Bosworth, still retains fifteen parts out of twenty in its Saxon state. The Norman plurals in *s* have however superseded the Saxon plurals in *en*; for we incline to think that this was the oldest English form of plurality, and that the *a* of the Anglo-Saxon grammar was a Romish contrivance, never in vernal use here.

To the preface succeeds a philosophical introduction, which discourses much and well about the origin of alphabetic writing, and admits that the Phenician or old Hebrew alphabet has been the root of all others; whether, as the Talmudists say, Abraham really invented Chaldaic characters, or whether he only introduced them to his clan from Babel, where he is said to have resided in the time of Nimrod.

All this preliminary and general matter is followed by a regular specific grammar, divided into the several heads of Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, Prosody, and Dialects; under which last is introduced an extensive praxis of extracts from the best Anglo-Saxon writers, such as Ælfric's Homilies, the Saxon Chronicle, the Church-history of Bede, the Boethius of Alfred, the Hymns of Caedmon, and the War-songs on Athelstan's victory and Edgar's death. We regret to find no specimen from Beowulf, which was attentively analyzed in our lxxxixth vol. p. 516., and which constitutes the most considerable production of the Saxon muse. Whether we have justly referred the composition of that work to a Suffolk chieftain of the twelfth century named Wiglaf, it becomes not us to decide, but we believe the manuscript to have been found in a monastery at Dunwich.

As the chapter on dialects is perhaps the most peculiar part of this grammar, we shall extract it; omitting, however, the numerous notes and specimens.

1. The Saxons came from different provinces of Germany into Britain; it is, therefore, probable some variety existed in the pronunciation of their words: but as they were incorporated together, and united under a regal government in Britain before the chief era of literature began, and as what was previously written is probably conveyed to us in the more recent orthography and style, it is, therefore, most likely that one form of the language would prevail. This was denominated Anglo-Saxon, and it was used by the majority of the inhabitants in England, on the establishment of the

the Saxon power in A.D. 457, and continued for four centuries and a half, till A.D. 900, or perhaps till the reign of Athelstan, A.D. 924: but pure Saxon may be found, which was probably written even after the latter period.

‘ We may, however, confidently look to the *Laws* of the Saxon monarchs, *Charters*, and *Chronicle*, before the time of Athelstan; to the works of *King Alfred*, to the *Heptateuch*, *Gospels*, the *Gospel of Nicodemus*, the *Poem on Beowulf*, &c. for Anglo-Saxon in its greatest state of purity.

‘ 2. It may be readily allowed, that one form of the Anglo-Saxon language might prevail for a considerable time in England; but it must also be evident, that learning was not so common in the Saxon æra as at the present time. Our ancestors, having few opportunities for literary acquirements, could not have determined upon fixed rules for orthography, any more than illiterate persons in the present day, who, having been employed in manual labour, could avail themselves of the facilities which were offered: hence, arose the difference observable in spelling the same words in Saxon; but a difference in orthography will not constitute a dialect. In a dialect of any language, there is a systematic alteration in the modification of the words, and often an introduction of new terms. This alteration in the termination of words is said to be perceptible at two periods of the Saxon language. The Anglo-Saxon is, therefore, considered as having two dialects, called the *Dano-Saxon*, and the *Norman-Saxon*; according to the times when the Danes and Normans entered, and prevailed in this island.

‘ 3. From the frequent incursions, and partial settlements of the Danes in England, it is reasonable to suppose that their language would have some influence over the Anglo-Saxon, especially in the North, where the Danes were most numerous. The peculiarities of the Danish tongue would predominate, in proportion as their power and authority increased in England. During the reign of Danish kings in this nation, from A.D. 1016 to 1042, their northern dialect would generally prevail: it would also have some influence for a considerable time before, and would continue after the Danish kings had ceased to reign in England. Though, from the gradual change observable in languages, no specific time can be given for the actual commencement, or termination of the Dano-Saxon dialect, yet we may presume it would have more or less influence for nearly two centuries, — probably from about A.D. 900 to near 1070 or 1100.

‘ 4. The Danes, being a rude illiterate people, chiefly employed as pirates, adopted the most ready way of expressing their thoughts; they therefore disregarded the improved form of the Anglo-Saxon tongue; and either altered or omitted most of the Saxon terminating syllables. The Dano-Saxon dialect is not only distinguished by a disregard of the usual Anglo-Saxon inflection, but by the Cimbric or old Icelandic words which are introduced.

‘ 5. The interchange of letters has been noticed under each letter in Orthography; and many of the alterations by Dano-Saxon inflection are given in the proper place in Etymology.

‘ 6. It

‘ 6. It may also be remarked, that *n* is generally rejected in Dano-Saxon; it is omitted at the end of verbs; for,

‘ In Dano-Saxon we find *Sel me þinca*, *Give me drink*; for the Saxon, *Style me þincan*. John, iv. 7. The *e* is omitted according to sect. 4., and the *n*, to sect. 6.

‘ *Nelle þu onþrebe*, (*noli timere*), *Be thou unwilling to dread*; the *n* is omitted, and *a* converted into *e*, according to Orthog. sect. 29. “In Dan-Sax., &c.” The Anglo-Saxon of this clause is, *Nelle þu onþræban*, Matt. i. 20. *Nellað ge ðoeme*, *Be ye unwilling to judge*; for the Anglo-Saxon *Nellen ge beman*. Matt. vii. 1.

‘ The *n* is also rejected at the end of nouns and other words; for the Dano-Saxon *Lenemne þu noma h̃r Dælenb*, the Saxon has *noman* or *naman*; as *Ðu nem̃t h̃r naman Dælenb*, *Thou shalt call his name Healer*. Matt. i. 21. In Dano-Saxon we find *Geŕegen þe ŕoppon ŕceppu h̃r*, instead of *h̃r ŕceoppan*, *We have seen his star*. Matt. ii. 2. *And þinneth oþer ŕoppæra 7 unŕoppæra*, *And raineth upon the just and unjust*. Matt. v. 45. Instead of the Anglo-Saxon *Ða ŕoppætan 7 þa unŕoppætan*. The Dano-Saxon has *Þrom ŕeŕta þonn t̃ib*. *From the sixth hour*. Matt. xxvii. 45. for the regular Saxon *Fram þære ŕixtan t̃ibe*. In Dano-Saxon *beze*, both, and *tpege*, two, are used for *bezen* and *tpegen*; *ego*, *eyes*, for *egon*.

‘ Not only *n*, but the last syllable is often rejected: as *eŕŕo* in Dano-Saxon is formed from the Anglo-Saxon *eŕŕona*, *forthwith*, by rejecting the last syllable *na*.

‘ In Dano-Saxon *n* before another consonant is often omitted: as, *c̃yng* for *c̃yning*.

‘ 7. The Dano-Saxon often substitutes one Case for another. We therefore find, *Ic ŕenbo engel min*, *I send my angel*, for the regular Anglo-Saxon *minne engil*. — *Ne in þ̃ŕŕum lif*, *ne in þ̃æm topepb lif*, *Neither in this life, nor in that future life*; for *topepbum* or *topeapþan life*. — *Oppe ðoeð tpe goð 7 þ̃ætm h̃r goð*, *oppe ðoeð þæt tpe ýfel 7 þ̃ætm h̃r ýfel*, *Eiðer make the tree good and his fruit good, or make the tree evil and his fruit evil*; for *þ̃ætm goðne* and *þ̃ætm ýfelne*. — *Cuoeth hlaŕoþ ðære pinzeapbe*, *Saith the lord of the vineyard*, for *ðære pinzeapbes*. — *Bobebe goþŕpeller ŕiceŕ*, *He preached the gospel of the kingdom*, Matt. ix. 35., the genitive for the accusative *goþŕpell*.

‘ 8. The preposition *to* is occasionally used instead of the dative termination; as *Ða cpæð to leopneþ h̃r*, *Then he saith to his disciples*, Matt. ix. 37., instead of *þa cpæð leopnepum h̃r*, or in genuine Saxon, *þa he ŕæbe h̃r leopning-cnihtum*.

‘ 9. The Normans had some intercourse with England, even from the accession of Edward the Confessor, in A.D. 1042; but the Norman-French could have little influence over the Saxon language till after the time of the Conquest. The laws, being administered by the Norman Conqueror in his own language, would naturally introduce many new words; and the mutual efforts of the Normans and Saxons to understand each other would make an alteration in both languages; but as the majority of the inhabitants were

Saxons,

"Saxons; it is reasonable to presume that the Saxon language predominated, while the Norman tongue would have influence enough to change the modification of the Saxon words, and perhaps would cause the inhabitants to reject or alter some of the variable terminations which were left in the Dano-Saxon dialect. Though no precise time can be fixed for the exact origin and conclusion of the Norman-Saxon, it may be affirmed that it succeeded the Dano-Saxon, and probably prevailed for nearly two centuries; or from about A.D. 1070 to 1260, in the reign of Henry the Third. What was written after the latter period is so different from the Anglo-Saxon, and so nearly allied to our present language, that without any impropriety it may be denominated English.

"10. The Norman-Saxon dialect is distinguished by an almost total disregard of the variations of nouns and verbs, and by the following changes of letters:

"In the beginning, middle, and end of words, *z* is changed into *i* and *y*: as, *iunye* for *geonge*, *young*. Gibson's *Sax. Chron.* p. 168. 1.; see Orthog. sect. 15. p. 48.; *peinar* for *pegnar*, *rains*. *Sax. Chron.* 219. 30.; *bæier* for *bæger*, *days*; *bæi* for *bæg*, *day*; *Ælmiht* for *Ælmihtig*, *Almighty*; *twenti* for *twentig*, *twenty*; *mai* for *mæg*, *may*; *æn* for *ænig*, *any*.

"11. *E* is changed into *k*: as *king* and *kinges*, for *cýng* and *cýniges*, *king* and *kings*; *broke* for *broke*, *broke*; *munces* for *munces*, *monks*.

"*F* is changed into *u* or *v*: as *have* for *hæfe*, *have*; *love* for *lufu*, *love*; *love* for *lufabe*, *loved*; *seven* for *seofon*, *seven*; *heouene* for *heofene*, *in heaven*.

"*F* is changed into *m* before *m*: as, *þimman* for *þymman*, *woman*.

"*L* and *z* were changed into *ch*, or rather, in the age when *c* and *z* were pronounced hard, *ch* was employed to express the original soft sound of *c*: as, *chilb* for *cilb*, *child*; *chercep* for *cearcep*, *city*.

"The change of vowels is explained in Orthography under each letter; for instance, *ea* into *e* in *chercep*. (Orthog. 29.)

"*E* is changed into *p* or *y*: as, *þepen* for *þegen*, *a thane*; *þeýna* for *þegna*, *rain*.

"The prefix *ze* is generally omitted, or changed into *i-* or *y-*, as *i-blent*, *y-clept*.

"14. *Um*, the termination of the dative case plural in nouns and adjectives, is either changed into *an* or *en*: as, *On þepobe* *bagen*, for the Anglo-Saxon *On þepobeþ bagum*, in *Herod's days*. Luke, i. 5. *Beapnan* for *beapnum*, *with children*.

"This excellent grammar is not only the completest view of Anglo-Saxon language which we have yet seen, but is also ornamented with much curious speculative philosophy concerning topics of philology; and many parts of it may be read with amusement and instruction by persons who are not ambitious of acquiring the language, the rules of which it is destined to record.

ART. V. *Captain Franklin's Narrative of a Journey to the Shores of the Polar Sea, &c.*

[Article concluded from page 20.]

IN the forenoon of the 21st of July, the expedition commenced the navigation of the hyperborean sea in two canoes of birch-bark, and with provisions for only fifteen days: paddling all day along the coast to the eastward, on the inside of a crowded range of islands, on one of which they landed and found various traces of Esquimaux. Little ice was in sight, but its *blink* was very perceptible. After a run of thirty-seven miles, they encamped on the main shore, and set up a pole to ascertain the rise and fall of the water, which was done at every halting place. The coast was here of moderate elevation, and easy of access, but the islands were rocky and barren. The westernmost groupe was named *Berens' Islands*, in honor of the governor of the Hudson's Bay Company; and the easternmost, *Sir Grahame Moore's*. Many other islands, bays, promontories, &c. were for the first time named in the course of this adventurous range, as will be seen from the map. On the 23d, the shore was observed to be extremely rocky and barren, and they pursued their way 'with some danger and more anxiety' through small channels, formed among the ice. Trap-cliffs began to succeed one another, in tiresome uniformity. At the landing-place, on the 25th, the canoes were in imminent danger of being crushed to pieces; this spot was named *Detention Harbour*, because it was necessary to wait for the removal or melting of the ice. Here some of the dried provisions were found to have become mouldy from wet; and it was discovered that the beef, from being badly cured, was scarcely eatable. The diminution, however, offered a still more appalling prospect than even the unsound state of the stock, as the fresh supplies were very scanty and precarious. To the consternation of the sufferers, too, although there had been frost in the night, swarms of mosquitoes assailed them in the day-time, apparently haunting those desolate regions in defiance of climate.

On the 29th, a passage was effected along the shore, after the labor of seven hours, and much hazard to the frail vehicles; the utmost precaution being necessary, in conducting them through the narrow channels, to prevent their impinging on the projecting points of ice. In Arctic Sound, the travellers were again involved in streams of ice, from which they finally escaped with considerable trouble and delay. — Near Hood's River, several deer, all of them young and meagre, and a lean brown bear, were despatched by the hunters; but no Esquimaux could be found. Arctic Sound appeared,

peared, on the whole, to be one of the most desirable anchoring stations for ships that had been observed along the coast. — Considerable uncertainty prevailed, for some days, respecting the genuine direction of the course, the officers being perplexed between the main shore and a chain of islands, and time was unavoidably lost in exploring: but a musk-ox, a bear, and a fortunate draught of fish, compensated in some measure for the retardation. Yet the breakfast of the 9th of August had reduced the provisions to two bags of pemmicans, and a single meal of dried meat.

‘The men began to apprehend absolute want of food, and we had to listen to their gloomy forebodings of the deer entirely quitting the coast in a few days. As we were embarking, however, a large bear was discovered on the opposite shore, which we had the good fortune to kill; and the sight of this fat meat relieved their fears for the present. Dr. Richardson found in the stomach of this animal the remains of a seal, several marmots (*arctomys Richardsonii*), a large quantity of the liquorice-root of Mackenzie (*hedysarum*) which is common on these shores, and some berries. There was also intermixed with these substances a small quantity of grass.’

Most of the head-lands bore traces, though not recent, of the visits of the Esquimaux. In Melville Sound, which stretches 34 miles from east to west, and 20 from north to south, a heavy rolling sea had materially injured the canoes: but a still more distressing consideration was the very decided aversion of the people to advance any farther in what they conceived to be a forlorn enterprize, which had even induced the hunters to relax their efforts, that a period might be put to the voyage by the want of subsistence. Having imparted his own sentiments and apprehensions to his officers, who perfectly concurred in them, the commander, on the evening of the 15th, intimated to the men that, unless they should previously meet with the Esquimaux, and arrange with them for passing the winter, he was determined to return, after four days of examination. On the following day, they had the pleasure to find the coast trending east-north-east, with the sea in the offing, clear of islands; ‘a circumstance which afforded matter of wonder to our Canadians, who had not previously had an uninterrupted view of the ocean.’ — The course was continued along the shore till eight o’clock in the evening, when violent squalls compelled the party to encamp, in lat. 68° 18' 50" N., and long. 110° 5' 15" W. The thermometer at noon stood at 41.

‘On August 18th the stormy weather and sea continuing, there was no prospect of our being able to embark. Dr. Richardson,
Mr. Back,

Mr. Back, and I, therefore, set out on foot to discover whether the land, within a day's march, inclined more to the east. We went from ten to twelve miles along the coast, which continued flat, and kept the same direction as the encampment. The most distant land we saw had the same bearing north-north-east, and appeared like two islands, which we estimated to be six or seven miles off; the shore on their inside seemingly trended more to the east, so that it is probable Point Turnagain, for so this spot was named, forms the pitch of a low flat cape.* —

Though it will appear from the chart, that the position of Point Turnagain is only six degrees and a half to the east of the mouth of the Copper-Mine River, we sailed, in tracing the deeply indented coast, five hundred and fifty-five geographic miles, which is little less than the direct distance between the Copper-Mine River and Repulse Bay; supposing the latter to be in the longitude assigned to it by Middleton.

When the many perplexing incidents which occurred during the survey of the coast are considered in connexion with the shortness of the period, during which operations of the kind can be carried on, and the distance we had to travel before we could gain a place of shelter for the winter, I trust it will be judged that we prosecuted the enterprise as far as was prudent, and abandoned it only under a well-founded conviction that a further advance would endanger the lives of the whole party, and prevent the knowledge of what had been done from reaching England. The active assistance I received from the officers, in contending with the fears of the men, demands my warmest gratitude.

Our researches, as far as they have gone, seem to favour the opinion of those who contend for the practicability of a North-west Passage. The general line of coast probably runs east and west, nearly in the latitude assigned to Mackenzie's River, the sound into which Kotzebue entered, and Repulse Bay; and very little doubt can, in my opinion, be entertained of the existence of a continued sea, in or about that line of direction. The existence of whales, too, on this part of the coast, evidenced by the whale-bone we found in Esquimaux Cove, may be considered as an argument for an open sea; and a connexion with Hudson's Bay is rendered more probable from the same kind of fish abounding on the coasts we visited, and on those to the north of Churchill River. I allude more particularly to the Capelin or *Salmo Arcticus*, which we found in large shoals in Bathurst's Inlet, and which not only abounds, as Augustus told us, in the bays in his country, but swarms in the Greenland firths.* The portion of the sea over which we passed is navigable for vessels of any size; the ice we met, particularly after quitting Detention Harbour, would not have arrested a strong boat. The chain of islands affords shelter from all heavy seas, and there are good harbours at convenient distances. I entertain, indeed, sanguine hopes that the skill and exertions of my friend Captain Parry will soon render this ques-

* *Arctic Zoology*, vol. ii. p. 894.

tion no longer problematical. His task is doubtless an arduous one, and, if ultimately successful, may occupy two and perhaps three seasons; but confiding as I do, from personal knowledge, in his perseverance and talent for surmounting difficulties, the strength of his ships, and the abundance of provisions with which they are stored, I have very little apprehension of his safety. As I understand his object was to keep the coast of America close on board, he will find in the spring of the year, before the breaking up of the ice can permit him to pursue his voyage, herds of deer, flocking in abundance to all parts of the coast, which may be procured without difficulty; and, even later in the season, additions to his stock of provision may be obtained on many parts of the coast, should circumstances give him leisure to send out hunting parties. With the trawl or seine-nets also, he may almost every where get abundance of fish even without retarding his progress. Under these circumstances I do not conceive that he runs any hazard of wanting provisions, should his voyage be prolonged even beyond the latest period of time which is calculated upon. Drift-timber may be gathered at many places in considerable quantities, and there is a fair prospect of his opening a communication with the Esquimaux, who come down to the coast to kill seals in the spring, previous to the ice breaking up; and from whom, if he succeeds in conciliating their good-will, he may obtain provision, and much useful assistance.

If he makes for Copper-Mine River, as he probably will do, he will not find it in the longitude as laid down on the charts; but he will probably find what would be more interesting to him, a post, which we erected on the 26th of August at the mouth of Hood's River, which is nearly, as will appear hereafter, in that longitude, with a flag upon it, and a letter at the foot of it, which may convey to him some useful information. It is possible, however, that he might keep outside of the range of islands which skirt this part of the coast.

In consequence of the circumstances in which he now found himself placed, Captain Franklin deemed it most prudent to relinquish his original plan of returning by the Copper-Mine River; and rather to make at once for Arctic Sound, to advance up Hood's River as far as it should be found navigable, and then to construct out of the materials of the canoes two of a smaller size, which might be carried in traversing the barren grounds to Fort Enterprise. The thermometer was now at the freezing point at mid-day, and the ground was covered with snow.

The wind having moderated on the 22d, the men, cheered with the prospect of returning, embarked with alacrity, and paddled to Slate Clay Point; when, the wind again freshening, the tents were pitched, and, the stock of provisions being almost entirely consumed, all the party went supperless to rest. — Next day, the canoes ran fifteen miles across Melville Sound,

Sound, impelled by a strong wind and heavy sea; so that they were with much difficulty prevented from turning their broadsides to the waves, and one of them was almost over-set. In the course of the same day, when weathering a point to leeward, the recoil of the sea had nearly made them founder: but they were ultimately run on shore in safety, on an open sandy beach. — Though the weather now became more mild and moderate, still no game could be procured, and wild berries were greedily devoured: but on the 25th some deer were killed, and the apprehensions of immediate famine were thus removed. — On the following day, (mis-dated the 25th,) Point Wollaston was turned, and Hood's River was ascended to the first rapid, after a boisterous and perilous navigation of 650 geographical miles on the Arctic Sea. During this voyage, the extremes in the temperature of the sea-water were 53° and 35°, and the average between 43° and 48°. On the return, it was observed that the water rose several feet above the marks left at the former encampments, owing probably to the prevalence of north-westerly gales.

As the ascent of Hood's River was often impeded by shoals or rapids, and the crews were much fatigued by carrying or dragging their canoes and burdens, two small canoes, which might be ready for any temporary emergency in crossing streams, were formed out of the old boats, during the encampment at the lower end of a narrow chasm.

The walls of this chasm are upwards of two hundred feet high, quite perpendicular, and in some places only a few yards apart. The river precipitates itself into it over a rock, forming two magnificent and picturesque falls close to each other. The upper fall is about sixty feet high, and the lower one at least one hundred, but perhaps considerably more, for the narrowness of the chasm into which it fell prevented us from seeing its bottom, and we could merely discern the top of the spray far beneath our feet. The lower fall is divided into two, by an insulated column of rock which rises about forty feet above it. The whole descent of the river at this place probably exceeds two hundred and fifty feet. The rock is very fine felspathose sand-stone. It has a smooth surface and a light red colour. I have named these magnificent cascades "Wilberforce Falls," as a tribute of my respect for that distinguished philanthropist and Christian.

The burdens were now lightened by leaving all superfluous articles in concealment on the spot; and the plan was commenced of making, with the least possible delay, for that part of Point Lake which is opposite to the last spring-encampment. The officers carried as much of their own luggage as their strength would permit, and the weight borne by each man was reduced to about 90 pounds. Thus loaded, they marched

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at the rate of about a mile in an hour, including intervals of rest. The country gradually became more hilly and barren, and the weather colder; the canoes were with difficulty carried in high winds; and the surface of the ground was strewn with small pebbles, painful to feet that were protected only by soft moose-skin shoes. — September 3., the travellers crossed the river in their two canoes, lashed together, and emerging from the valley entered on a level and sterile region. On the 5th and 6th they were constrained to remain in their tents, without meat or fuel; the snow drifting around them to the depth of three feet, and the thermometer having descended to 20° : but on the morning of the 7th, in spite of cold and hunger, they roused themselves to the determination of resuming their course.

‘Just as we were about to commence the march,’ says the author, ‘I was seized with a fainting fit, in consequence of exhaustion and sudden exposure to the wind; but after eating a morsel of portable soup, I recovered, so far as to be able to move on. It was unwilling at first to take this morsel of soup, which was diminishing the small and only remaining meal for the party; but several of the men urged me to it, with much kindness. The ground was covered a foot deep with snow, the margin of the lakes was incrustated with ice, and the swamps over which we had to pass were entirely frozen; but the ice not being sufficiently strong to bear us, we frequently plunged knee-deep in water. Those who carried the canoes were repeatedly blown down by the violence of the wind, and they often fell, from making an insecure step on a slippery stone; on one of these occasions, the largest canoe was so much broken as to be rendered utterly unserviceable. This was felt as a serious disaster, as the remaining canoe having through mistake been made too small, it was doubtful whether it would be sufficient to carry us across a river. Indeed we had found it necessary, in crossing Hood’s River, to lash the two canoes together. As there was some suspicion that Benoit, who carried the canoe, had broken it intentionally, he having on a former occasion been overheard by some of the men to say, that he would do so when he got it in charge, we closely examined him on the point; he roundly denied having used the expression attributed to him, and insisted that it was broken by his falling accidentally; and as he brought men to attest the latter fact, who saw him tumble, we did not press the matter further. I may here remark, that our people had murmured a good deal at having to carry two canoes, though they were informed of the necessity of taking both, in case it should be deemed advisable to divide the party; which it had been thought probable we should be obliged to do, if animals proved scarce, in order to give the whole the better chance of procuring subsistence, and also for the purpose of sending forward some of the best walkers to search for Indians, and to get them to meet us with supplies of provision. The power

of doing this was now at an end. As the accident could not be remedied, we turned it to the best account, by making a fire of the bark and timbers of the broken vessel, and cooked the remainder of our portable soup and arrow-root. This was a scanty meal after three days' fasting, but it served to allay the pangs of hunger, and enabled us to proceed at a quicker pace than before. The depth of the snow caused us to march in Indian file, that is in each other's steps; the voyagers taking it in turn to lead the party. A distant object was pointed out to this man in the direction we wished to take, and Mr. Hood followed immediately behind him, to renew the bearings, and keep him from deviating more than could be helped from the mark. It may be here observed, that we proceeded in this manner throughout our route across the barren grounds.'

After this period, *tripe de roche* (different species of lichens, of the genus *Gyrophora*,) frequently formed their sole or principal diet; though, as an article of food, it is very unsubstantial, and not always harmless, affecting some constitutions with violent bowel-complaints, which Mr. Hood and others experienced. We may here also mention that a beverage to which they had often recourse, and which, though not nutritious, contributed to internal warmth, was *country* or *swamp-tea*, a decoction of the leaves of *Ledum palustre*. Their loss of one of the canoes caused much trouble and hazard in the passage across Cracroft River, and subsequently in traversing the *Cargoeatha wha chaga* of Hearne, whose erroneous reckoning had misled them. The hilly nature of the ground, and the depth of the snow, also rendered walking both laborious and insecure. On the 11th, the men frequently fell with their burdens, but without any serious injury. — A large musk cow was killed in the evening. 'To skin and cut up the animal was the work of a few minutes. The contents of its stomach were devoured upon the spot, and the raw intestines, which were next attacked, were pronounced by the most delicate among us to be excellent. A few willows, whose tops were seen peeping through the snow in the bottom of the valley, were quickly grubbed, the tents pitched, and supper cooked, and devoured with avidity. This was the sixth day, since we had had a good meal.' Yet, in the course of a day or two, all complained more than ever of faintness and debility; and, to add to their sufferings, some of the men had thrown away the nets and burned the floats, so that no reliance could any longer be placed on fishing. The burdens were now still farther lightened, the rejected articles being deposited at the encampment; and nothing was retained but ammunition, clothing, and the instruments requisite for finding the direction of the course. Meanwhile, another attempt to cross

cross a rapid had nearly proved fatal; Captain Franklin himself having been twice thrown into the stream, and one of the men dragged almost lifeless on shore. On this occasion, too, the Captain lost his port-folio, containing his journal from Fort Enterprise, together with the astronomical and meteorological observations made on the Copper-Mine River, and along the sea-coast: but he says that his companions, Dr. Richardson, Mr. Back, and Mr. Hood, 'had been so careful in noting every occurrence in their journals, that the loss of mine could fortunately be well supplied. These friends immediately offered me their documents, and every assistance in drawing up another narrative, of which kindness I availed myself at the earliest opportunity afterwards.'

From want of success in hunting, the wearied wanderers had recourse on the 17th to singed bits of hide for food. Next day, indeed, some Icelandic moss (*Lichen Islandicus*) was procured, but, being unsoaked, was so bitter that few could eat it. Each person became progressively weaker, and less fitted to encounter the march over snow and hills in the day, or the piercing cold of the night, the slightest breeze thrilling through their debilitated frames. Mr. Hood was particularly enfeebled: Captain Franklin was unable to keep up with those who exerted themselves to gain a sight of Point Lake, which seemed still to baffle their calculations; and the men threatened to throw away their packages and run off, which they probably would have done if they had known what track to pursue. At the encampment of the 21st, Dr. Richardson was obliged to deposit his specimens of plants and minerals, being no longer able to carry them. — On the following day, the march was regulated by an expanse of water, supposed to be a branch of Point Lake; but the canoe, broken by repeated falls, had been abandoned. 'The anguish this intelligence occasioned,' says the journalist, 'may be conceived, but it is beyond my power to describe it. Impressed, however, with the necessity of taking it forward, even in the state these men represented it to be, we urgently desired them to fetch it; but they declined going, and the strength of the officers was inadequate to the task. To their obstinate obstinacy on this occasion, a great portion of the melancholy circumstances which attended our subsequent progress may, perhaps, be attributed.' — On the 22d, two substantial repasts were made on five small deer, belonging to a herd that had appeared in the moments of despair, and when several of the party had been eagerly devouring scraps of leather and old shoes: but all suffered more or less from the free use of animal food, after such protracted fasting. —

Early on the 26th, they reached the Copper-Mine River: but, destitute of a canoe, they were much embarrassed to cross it; and time was lost in searching for fords, and in repeated attempts to construct a sufficient raft of willow-faggots. When the latter scheme was on the point of being abandoned as hopeless, Dr. Richardson nobly endeavored to swim across with a line, and would have perished in the attempt if he had not been hauled back, in a state of insensibility. St. Germain at length proposed to make a canoe of the painted canvas in which the bedding was wrapped, and finished it by the 4th of October, when all were separately conveyed across. Mr. Back and some attendants were immediately despatched in search of the Indians, with directions, if he should not fall in with them, to proceed to Fort Enterprize; where a note from Mr. Wentzel, it was presumed, would put him in the proper path to their dwellings. The rest of the party slowly followed, eating the remnants of old shoes and such scraps of leather as they could collect; and the extreme debility of Mr. Hood, with two or three of the men, occasioning frequent halts and stragglings. Vaillant, one of the people, at last lay down, became benumbed with cold, and expired: Cr dit, declaring that he could no longer march, halted by himself; and with painful reluctance Captain Franklin consented to leave Dr. Richardson, Mr. Hood, and Hepburn behind, and to proceed with the rest as speedily as possible, in the hope of sending relief to their fainting companions. After a very cold and hungry night, they found that they could neither raise nor carry the tent, which was accordingly cut up, each person taking part of the canvas for a cover. Belanger and Michel, who complained of a sudden failure of strength, were allowed to join Mr. Hood's party; and Perrault and Fontano, from faintness and giddiness, were soon obliged to follow their example.

At the long desired Fort Enterprize the commander and five of his attendants at length arrived: but they found it, to their utter dismay, a desolate habitation, without any deposit of provisions, and even the parchment torn from the windows, the temperature being from 15° to 20° below zero. On the 13th, Belanger, stiff with ice, and almost speechless, having fallen into a rapid, arrived with a note from Mr. Back; stating that this gentleman had discovered no vestiges of Indians, and requested farther instructions with respect to his movements. By the 18th, the messenger had recovered sufficient strength to take charge of the reply; the purport of which was that Captain Franklin would advance by the route to Fort Providence, and that Mr. Back should join him at Rein-

Rein-deer Lake. Adam, however, another of the Canadians, having stated his inability to proceed, and his companions, Peltier and Samandrè, having volunteered to remain with him, the Captain set out with a heavy heart on the morning of the 20th, attended only by Benoît and Augustus. The first day's march, owing to the depth of the snow, and the feebleness of the travellers, did not exceed four miles, in six hours, when they encamped on the borders of Round-Rock Lake. Next morning, having broken his snow-shoes, the Captain was necessitated to return, leaving the other two to make the best of their way in search of the Indians, and apprizing Mr. Back of the cause of his return to Fort Enterprise. Here he found Adam and Samandrè in a state of the greatest dejection, and almost incapable of any exertion; so that he had to assist Peltier in cooking any wretched scraps that could be picked up for supper, in carrying in the wood, and in other menial occupations. Soon afterward, they were joined by Dr. Richardson and Hepburn, as reduced in appearance as themselves; and the Doctor's heart-rending recital will be perused with deep and melancholy interest: but we can only glance at some of the prominent topics. Michel, the Iroquois, was strongly suspected of having murdered Belanger and Perrault; and Mr. Hood, who was already verging to the last term of debility and exhaustion, was doomed to perish by the hand of the same ruthless barbarian. Such was the premature fate of a gallant and gifted youth, who had unremittingly devoted his talents to the best interests of the expedition; and who, had he survived the pressure of cold, fatigue, and famine, might have acquired a distinguished name in the annals of his profession. Dr. Richardson, confidently assured that the assassin intended to make him and Hepburn his next victims, incurred the responsibility of shooting him through the head with a pistol. 'Had my own life alone,' says he, 'been threatened, I would not have purchased it by such a measure; but I considered myself as intrusted also with the protection of Hepburn's, a man who, by his humane attentions and devotedness, had so endeared himself to me, that I felt more anxiety for his safety than for my own.' When at last these two rejoined the party, Dr. R. says, 'No words can convey an idea of the filth and wretchedness that met our eyes on looking around. Our own misery had stolen upon us by degrees, and we were accustomed to each other's emaciated figures, but the ghastly countenances, dilated eye-balls, and sepulchral voices of Mr. Franklin and those with him were more than we could at first bear.'

The tragical events of this journey are not yet closed; for Peltier died of weakness on the 1st of November, and Sammandrè early on the next morning. The painful sensations of hunger in the survivors are stated to have subsided in four days, when they procured some sleep, usually accompanied by pleasing dreams: but their bodies were galled by lying in the same posture on the hard floor, and to turn was now attended with toil and difficulty. Every one was sensible of the reduced state of intellect in his companions; and the least effort induced a pettish humour, which was instantly acknowledged, but perhaps repeated the very next minute. At last, on the 7th of November, when the remaining strength of each individual was nearly consumed, three Indians, expedited by Mr. Back from Akaitcho's camp, arrived, but with only a small supply of provisions, that they might travel more quickly. It consisted of dried deer's meat, some fat, and a few tongues. Captain Franklin, Dr. Richardson, and Hepburn, though quite aware of the danger of indulging their appetite too freely at first, could not, in their weakened state of mind, refrain from some excess; and they accordingly suffered much from repletion and indigestion, whereas Adam, who was incapable of feeding himself, was treated with judicious moderation, and began hourly to recover. One of the Indians quietly went off for a fresh allowance, and the two others remained to take care of the party; exerting themselves with great activity and kindness until the 15th, when more of their tribe and more provisions arrived. As it was of consequence, however, to get among the rein-deer before the second supply failed, it was resolved to depart from Fort Enterprize on the next morning; and accordingly, at an early hour on the 16th, having united in thanksgiving and prayer, the whole party left the house after breakfast. The Indians attended on the march, never relaxing in their tender and affectionate cares; and from this period to the 26th the travellers continued to improve. On the last-mentioned day, they entered Akaitcho's camp, in which they received much marked and compassionate attention from the chief himself and all his band. Letters from England, forwarded by Mr. Weeks, with some casual supplies from Fort Providence, arrived on the 6th of December. The letters conveyed the result of Captain Parry's last voyage, and the promotion of the three naval officers of the present expedition: but the gratification, which this intelligence would have otherwise afforded, was materially diminished by the regret that Mr. Hood had not lived "to receive this just reward of his merit and services."

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December 11th, Captain Franklin and his recruited fellow-travellers arrived at Fort Providence, and entered a comfortable dwelling with sensations that can be more easily imagined than described. Here all matters were adjusted to the satisfaction of the Indians; and the Commander, having settled some minor details, proceeded to Moose-deer Island, which he reached on the 17th, and there had the pleasure of again meeting with Mr. Back. During the progress of the latter to Fort Providence, Beauparlant, one of his attendants, died of fatigue and inanition; and Mr. Back and his remaining companions were on the eve of sharing the same fate, when they providentially came on the track of the Indians, who not only relieved their pressing necessities, but treated them with generosity and kindness.

The winter-residence of the party at Moose-deer Island having, under the friendly and unremitting attentions of Mr. Macvicar and Mr. Macanley, restored the survivors to their ordinary health and strength, they set out on the 26th of May, 1892, for Fort Chipewyan, and arrived on the 2d of June; being accompanied by the two gentlemen just mentioned, and by nearly all the voyagers of the establishment. At this station, they met with Mr. Wentzel, who entered into an explanation of the circumstances relative to the non-fulfilment of his instructions.

'We were here,' concludes the writer of the narrative, 'furnished with a canoe by Mr. Smith, and a bowman to act as our guide; and having left Fort Chipewyan on the 5th, we arrived, on the 4th of July, at Norway House. Finding, at this place, that canoes were about to go down to Montreal, I gave all our Canadian voyagers their discharges, and sent them by those vessels, furnishing them with orders on the agent of the Hudson's Bay Company, for the amount of their wages. We carried Augustus down to York Factory, where we arrived on the 14th of July, and were received with every mark of attention and kindness by Mr. Simpson, the Governor, Mr. M'Tavish, and, indeed, by all the officers of the United Companies. And thus terminated our long, fatiguing, and disastrous travels in North America, having journeyed by water and by land (including our navigation of the Polar Sea) five thousand five hundred and fifty miles.'

A more truly afflicting record, than that which we have thus cursorily sketched, has seldom fallen under our cognizance: but, fortunately for the public, it is not a theme of barren regret or blighted expectation; the main specific object of the enterprize having been at least partially attained, much valuable scientific information collected and registered, and another illustrious example exhibited of what British valor,

under the guidance of education and religious dependence, can endure and achieve in the pursuit of knowledge and the discharge of professional duty. It is gratifying also to reflect that, from the commencement to the termination of the expedition, the most perfect harmony appears to have subsisted among the gentlemen who composed it; and that they seldom applied in vain for the advice or co-operation of the officers of both the trading companies.

The Appendix, which occupies 270 pages, consists of seven numbers, or articles, of which the first is intitled, *Geognostical Observations*, by John Richardson, M.D., Surgeon to the Expedition. These principally relate to some of the prevailing rock-formations which were observed in passing; for to have exhibited a continuous sketch of the geological structure of the great extent of country, that was traversed by the expedition, would have required a more ample range of close investigation than was compatible with urgent duties. When we consider, however, that the reporter was often conveyed in a canoe, or dragged over tracts of soil covered with snow, and that he had to contend with storms, cold, debility, and famine, we are surprized that he preserved so many details. We had looked, indeed, for more frequent notices of detached minerals: but the loss of the specimens may have prevented him from describing them. The number of geological remarks considerably exceeds our expectations, under all the circumstances of his situation; and they do not apply solely to the structure of rocks and strata, but also to the general aspect and relative position of the land within the scope of his visible horizon, and occasionally to the bearings and distribution of some of the principal rivers. They who speculate on the structure of the globe may deduce from the Doctor's annotations that, in the remote and unexplored regions which he had occasion to visit, the same general descriptions of alluvial, secondary, and primitive formations occur, that are to be found in other quarters of the world. We cannot advert, however, to many of his special statements; nor pretend to define the limits, real or conjectural, which he would assign to the respective predominance of gneiss and granite, lime-stone, sand-stone, or trap.

The magnetic islet mentioned in the narrative is described as composed of mica slate, highly impregnated with magnetic iron ore, and as having its thin layers alternating with others of that mineral: the strata being vertical, and much undulated, with a general direction from E. N. E. and W. S. W. Between a very extensive deposition of lime-stone and the
Rocky

Rocky Mountains, a coal-formation is interposed, as indicated by the beds having been on fire for many years on the upper part of the Saskatchewan, and on Mackenzie's River. — At the foot of the Basquian hill are several salt springs, from which a considerable quantity of salt is annually extracted. Salt springs and lakes also exist from twelve to twenty miles to the northward of Carlton House, as was ascertained by Captain Franklin in his winter-journey; and I obtained a small quantity of a salt which the Indians procure in that neighbourhood, and use as a purgative. They report that in the state of a fine powder it covers the shores of a small lake in the summer-time to the depth of two or three inches.

Pierre au Calumet, on the banks of the Elk River, has its name from a bed of yellowish-grey compact marl, which is quarried for the purpose of making *calumets*, or tobacco-pipes. A weathered portion of the same bed is used, under the name of *white earth*, for washing the interior of houses.

The Copper Mountains appear to form a range running S. E. and N. W. The great mass of rock in the mountains seems to consist of felspar in various conditions; sometimes in the form of felspar-rock or clay-stone, sometimes coloured by hornblende, and approaching to green-stone, but most generally in the form of dark reddish-brown amygdaloid. The amygdaloidal masses, contained in the amygdaloid, are either entirely pistacite, or pistacite enclosing calc-spar. Scales of native copper are very generally disseminated through this rock, through a species of trap-tuff which nearly resembled it, and also through a reddish sand-stone on which it appears to rest. When the felspar assumed the appearance of a slaty clay-stone, which it did towards the base of the mountains on the banks of the river, we observed no copper in it. The rough, and in general rounded and more elevated parts of the mountain, are composed of the amygdaloid; but between the eminences there occur many narrow and deep valleys, which are bounded by perpendicular mural precipices of green-stone. It is in these valleys, amongst the loose soil, that the Indians search for copper. Amongst the specimens we picked up in these valleys, were plates of native copper; masses of pistacite containing native copper; of trap-rock with associated native copper, green malachite, copper-glance or variegated copper-ore and iron-shot copper-green, of greenish-grey prehnite in trap, (the trap is felspar, deeply coloured with hornblende,) with disseminated native copper; the copper, in some specimens, was crystallized in rhomboidal dodecahedrons. We also found some large tabular fragments, evidently portions of a vein consisting of prehnite, associated with calcareous spar, and native copper. The Indians dig wherever they observe the prehnite lying on the soil, experience having taught them that the largest pieces of copper are found associated with it. We did not observe the vein in its original repository, nor does it appear that the Indians have found it,

it, but judging from the specimens just mentioned, it most probably traverses felspathose trap. We also picked up some fragments of a greenish grey coloured rock, apparently sand-stone, with disseminated variegated copper-ore and copper-glance; likewise rhomboidal fragments of white calcareous spar, and some rock-crystals. The Indians report that they have found copper in every part of this range, which they have examined for thirty or forty miles to the N. W., and that the Esquimaux come hither to search for that metal. We afterwards found some ice-chisels in possession of the latter people, twelve or fourteen inches long, and half an inch in diameter, formed of pure copper.

The average direction of the primitive and transition strata, observed in a range of twelve degrees of latitude, was N. E. and S. W., thus corresponding with their general direction in Europe, Asia, and South America; and their strata were always more or less inclined to the horizon, at a mean angle considerably exceeding 45° . Dr. Richardson, indeed, seems to have been forcibly struck by the still more general coincidences of geological features and appearances that he observed, with those which have been recorded by the most distinguished naturalists and travellers in different quarters of the world.

Nos. II. and III. relate to the *Aurora Borealis*, and include the separate and multiplied observations of Captain Franklin, Mr. Hood, and Dr. Richardson, on this phenomenon. Its very frequent recurrence with more or less vivacity and brilliancy during the winter-months, and in the northern regions, is strikingly attested by this accumulation of documents; while its changing and shifting forms are minutely described from actual observation. Its altitude, as ascertained by Mr. Hood, was found on various occasions to be far inferior to that which had been assigned to it by preceding observers; and this lamented young officer has satisfactorily proved its action on the magnetic needle, the degrees of which are marked in Tables. His experiments with an ingenious electrometer, which he constructed at Fort Enterprize, seem, moreover, to demonstrate that it is an electrical phenomenon, or that at least it induces an unusual state of electricity in the atmosphere. — From Dr. Richardson's paper, we may infer that the aurora is often formed under the clouds, and at no great elevation; and it frequently seemed to be connected with some modification of *cirro-stratus*. — Captain Franklin chiefly directed his attention to its effects on the magnetic needle, and to the connection of the amount of these effects with the position and appearances of the aurora. — None of these gentlemen were distinctly conscious that it emitted any rustling noise: but the evidence to this effect, from testimony,

was

was so pointed and respectable, that they entertained little doubt of its being sometimes the case. It was not found to indicate any particular change in the state of the weather; and, lastly, there is reason to believe that it sometimes occurs, invisibly, in the day-time. — For the particular data whence these and other general results have been deduced, we must refer to the voluminous communications themselves, which we regard as forming a valuable acquisition to our stock of physical knowledge.

No. IV. we shall notice presently, but first proceed to

No. V., being a *Zoological Appendix*, by Joseph Sabine, Esq., F.R.S. — It is well remarked by this able and discerning writer, that the native quadrupeds of North America have been hitherto very imperfectly known to the naturalists of Europe; and that zoology is greatly indebted to Dr. Richardson, who, under all the disadvantageous circumstances of his situation, contrived to collect numerous specimens, and to describe them on the spot. To those valuable memoranda, Mr. Sabine has added the benefit of his own observation and reading; and he has been enabled, through the handsome attention of the Hudson's Bay Company, to compare many of the skins sent home by the expedition with those which are imported in the course of the fur-trade. His statements comprise notices of most of the quadrupeds and many of the birds of the northern parts of America, occasional corrections of the mistakes of Buffon and other naturalists, descriptions of several novelties, and critical discussions concerning the arrangement of some doubtful genera or species. Few commentaries, in short, are more deserving of a niche in the library of every zoologist. In a few instances, the legitimacy of some of his lines of demarcation may be deemed ambiguous, but in most cases they are well selected and happily expressed. Among the species of quadrupeds introduced either recently or for the first time, we may mention *Ursus cinereus*, or the Grizzly Bear, the *U. horribilis* of Major Long, *Canis Lupus griseus*, or Grey Wolf, and *C. L. albus*, or White Wolf, several species of Fox, *Arctomys Franklinii*, *A. Richardsonii*, and *A. Hoodii*, *Cervus macrotis*, *C. Wapiti*, and *Antelope furcifer*.

The birds here particularized are those only of which specimens have been received from the expedition. They are arranged in the order followed by Temminck in the second edition of his *Manuel d'Ornithologie*, and their history is illustrated with marked and grateful reference to Wilson's fascinating work on American Ornithology. Among the novelties,

novelties, we perceive *Corvus Hudsonius*, or *Hudson's Bay Magpie*, and *Phalaropus Wilsonii*, or *American Phalarope*.

VI. *Notices of the Fishes*, by Dr. Richardson. — As far as they extend, these notices are stamped with a particular value; since they comprize lengthened and minute descriptions, taken on the spot, and from living specimens; and, in several instances, of kinds that may not soon again fall under the cognizance of the ichthyologist. Such is *Salmo Hearnii*, or *Copper-Mine River Salmon*, which is inferior to the common sort in size, and distinct from the various species of the genus indicated by Pallas and Cuvier. In July and August, it abounds at the Salmon Leap in Copper-Mine River. *S. Mackenzii* is the much-prized *Poisson inconnu* of the Canadian voyagers. Full-grown specimens weigh from 30 to 40 pounds, or upwards. The flesh is white, and much relished, but somewhat soft, and apt to pall on the appetite when taken as daily food. According to the Indians, it comes from the Arctic sea; and it frequents Mackenzie's River, with the communicating lakes and streams. The varieties of *S. fario*, or the common trout, were found to be too numerous for specification. 'We frequently observed trout,' says the author, 'weighing forty pounds, and were informed by the residents that fish of sixty pounds were not very uncommon in particular lakes. In Manito, or God's Lake, between Hill and Severn Rivers, they are reported to attain the enormous size of ninety pounds. The large individuals that we saw bore a striking resemblance to the overgrown trout that are occasionally met with in England.' *S. Grænlædicus*, *Capelan*, or *Lodde*, occurs in large shoals about Bathurst island. In the narrative, it seems to have been confounded with the *Capelin*, or *Gadus minutus*, a very different fish. *Coregonus albus* is the *Attiwhameg* of the Cree Indians, corrupted into *Tittameg* by the traders, the *Poisson Bleu* of the Canadians, and *White Fish* of the Anglo-Americans. It generally weighs from three to eight pounds, but has been known to attain to twenty. 'It forms a delicious food, and at many posts it is the sole article of diet for years together, without producing satiety.' *C. signifer*, *Back's Grayling*, or the *Blue Fish* of the fur-traders, is a most elegant species, described at great length, and figured in the plates. It is seen only in clear rivers, to the northward of Great Slave Lake. As an article of diet, it is inferior to the preceding. *Cottus hexacornis*, or *Six-horned Bull-head*, found in the Arctic sea, appears to be a non-descript. It has 'six obtuse club or rather nail-shaped processes, rising from the crown of the head.'

Of the classes of reptiles and invertebrate animals, either no collections were formed or their descriptions have been omitted. We have reason to believe, however, that even the most frigid regions visited by the expedition abound in a great variety of insects, particularly of the lepidopterous families.

VII. *Botanical Appendix*, by Dr. Richardson. — The catalogue of plants, here inserted, consists of 663 species; a number which, he readily admits, falls greatly short of the full flora of the countries through which he travelled: but the difficulties of the progress, and the loss of most of his collection which we have already recorded, will account for the deficiency. — Among the non-descripts, are reckoned *Batschia conspicua*, which inhabits dry woods growing in large patches on the banks of the Saskatchewan; *Phlox Hoodii*, a striking ornament of the plains near Carlton House; *Eutoca Franklinii*, on the banks of the Mississippi, where the woods have been destroyed by fire; *Heuchera Richardsonii*; *Zigadenus chloranthus*; *Stellaria leta*; *Potentilla concinna*, an elegant species; *Anemone Borealis*, and *A. Hudsoniana*; *Ranunculus Arcticus*; *Pedicularis macrodantis*; *Cardamine digitata*; *Astragalus aboriginum*, and *A. maculatus*; *Senecio lugens*; *Cineraria frigida*; *Aster saluginosus*, and *A. montanus*; *Salix desertorum*; *Cryptogramma acrostichoides*; *Cetraria Richardsonii*, &c. It is not a little remarkable that, with the exception of a *Conserva*, and the fragment of a *Floridea*, *Fucosceranoides* was the only *Alga* observed in the Arctic sea.

It remains for us to notice the '*Remarks and Tables connected with Astronomical Observations*,' given in Appendix, No. IV. They relate principally to the latitudes and longitudes of the places of observation, the dip and variation of the needle, its intensity, and the daily variation. The great attention which has been recently bestowed on magnetical science, and the paucity of our information on this subject with respect to high northern latitudes, were circumstances calculated to give particular importance to the observations in question. Tables iv., v., and vi., all relate to the daily variation of the needle. It has been known for about a century that the compass during the day has a certain westerly motion, commencing in these latitudes towards seven o'clock in the morning, and attaining its maximum of westerly range about half an hour past one or two: when it returns gradually to the eastward: but it was not known whether this was a general phænomenon, or peculiar to these parts. It had indeed been observed in some tropical climates, but the change was there so small as to leave some doubt whether the circumstances

circumstances noticed might not be attributed to errors of observation; and Captain Sabine had also stated that he could detect no daily variation at Melville island. We were therefore anxious to see what results had been obtained in this overland expedition; and we are gratified to find that the observations of Lieutenant Hood have completely settled this curious scientific question. We have not the whole of the observations of this unfortunate young officer, but those which are given are highly satisfactory. They were found in his journal accompanied by this remark:

“ The following table contains the mean diurnal variations of the compass for four months at Cumberland-House. Many unavoidable interruptions prevented the number of days in each month from being complete, and some irregularities have been caused by the motion of the compass-box. Those days are not included on which the needle was affected by the aurora. As in other places, the diurnal variation increases with the advance of summer, and the needle reaches the extremes of variation at nearly the same hours. But the maximum is at the coldest period, and the minimum at the warmest, which is the reverse, I believe, of the observations which have been made in Europe and in the East Indies.”

It is singular that Mr. Hood, whose accuracy of observation and real scientific knowledge are conspicuous in every part of his journals, did not perceive that, as the variation was *easterly*, this result, although apparently contrary to what had been observed in Europe, was in fact precisely the same. Our variation being *westerly*, and the morning motion of the needle being also *westerly*, the variation is *greatest* a little after noon: but with him therefore it ought, being *easterly*, to be the *least*, as he found it. The circumstance, also, of its being later by about three hours, is highly important, as it amounts to a proof that this mysterious motion has a dependence on the position of the magnetic meridian. It is to be regretted that the recent experiments on this subject by Mr. Barlow, which we understand were read to the Royal Society in their last sessions, and are to appear in the next part of the Philosophical Transactions, were not made before the expedition set out, as they would have been the means of rendering these results much more decisive. By neutralizing the directive power of the needle, we hear that Mr. B. has been able to increase the daily variation here from about twelve minutes to as many degrees: which simple contrivance would have enabled Captain Franklin and Mr. Hood to increase theirs in a like proportion; and to have given so much decision to the results, when connected both with the daily variation and with the

the effect of the aurora borealis, as could not have failed of being highly useful to the philosophical investigator.

The following is the abstract to which we have alluded as being made by Captain Franklin from Lieutenant Hood's journal :

Table IV. — The mean Diurnal Variation of the Compass for four Months, as observed at Cumberland-House by Lieut. Hood, R. N., lat. $53^{\circ} 56' 40''$ N., long. $102^{\circ} 16' 41''$ W. Dip $83^{\circ} 12' 50''$.

Months.	8 A.M.	9 A.M.	1 P.M.	4 P.M.	8 P.M.	12 P.M.
1820						
February	- - -	$17^{\circ} 16' 0''$ E	$17^{\circ} 11' 3''$ E	$17^{\circ} 9' 0''$ E	$17^{\circ} 12' 4''$ E	$17^{\circ} 13' 0''$ E
March	- - -	$17^{\circ} 14' 9''$	$17^{\circ} 9' 5''$	$17^{\circ} 9' 7''$	$17^{\circ} 12' 1''$	$17^{\circ} 13' 4''$
April	$17^{\circ} 15' 7''$ E	- - -	$17^{\circ} 8' 8''$	$17^{\circ} 9' 6''$	$17^{\circ} 12' 3''$	$17^{\circ} 13' 9''$
May	$17^{\circ} 16'$	- - -	$17^{\circ} 7' 8''$	$17^{\circ} 8' 3''$	- - -	$17^{\circ} 14' 7''$

Unfortunately, Captain Franklin, in the table of his own observations, has mixed in one general result the effect of the aurora and that of the daily variation; so that we are not able to draw from these any conclusion.

The next observations of importance are those which shew the dip and variation of the needle at the different stations. These are precisely the kind of observations that are requisite for pursuing our inquiries relative to the terrestrial magnetism; and we cannot but regret that Captain Franklin had not a better dipping needle, or, if it were really a proper instrument, that it had by some means been put out of adjustment. A dipping needle ought not, in the present improved state of mathematical instruments, to differ in its result with the face east and face west more than a fraction of a degree; but Captain Franklin's instrument differed in some instances as much as 13 degrees in these two positions; and, although by taking a mean, a certain degree of approximation has been obtained, we can place no confidence in the results. Indeed, we are convinced that the dip, as deduced from the observations, is every where too great: or at least we may be certain that this is the case at Cape Turnagain, where the dip is given $89^{\circ} 31'$, and the variation $44^{\circ} 15' 46''$; and we find no remarks as to the difficulty in obtaining the latter result. Now it must be obvious that, with a dip of $89^{\circ} 31'$, no compass ever yet constructed would shew any directive quality. Had the dip been actually so great, the needle of the horizontal compass would have been indifferent to any direction; whereas it appears that the variation was observed here without any remarkable difficulty. Consequently, we have every reason to conclude that the dipping needle, in this place at least, gave more than the real dip; and other reasons induce

us to think that the same was the case throughout: for, by computing the place of the pole from each observation, where both the dip and the variation are given, we find it always more westerly, and less northerly, than from Captain Parry's observations in his last voyage we had reason to expect: whereas, by supposing the dip in general to be marked by this instrument about a degree or two degrees in excess, we shall diminish the western longitude, increase the northern latitude of the pole, and approximate much nearer to the place of the latter as determined from Captain Parry's results. Indeed, the difference shewn by the instrument with its face at east and its face at west is a proof that we cannot depend on it for the results supplied; and, from what has been stated, there can be no doubt that the error is in excess. The same defects of course appear in the table of magnetic intensities; and we lament with Capt. F. that 'the instrument was not of the best kind for making with accuracy such delicate observations.'

Viewing this deeply interesting volume merely in the light of a literary composition, it possesses one of the fundamental properties of good writing, namely, unity of design; the writers never deviating into useless discussion or sentimental digressions, but adhering pertinaciously to their subject, and relating with plainness and perspicuity the events and circumstances, precisely in the order of their occurrence. Captain Franklin modestly disclaims all pretensions to eloquence; and it would be highly unreasonable to exact from an individual, trained from early life to the practical details of seamanship, the same polished diction or classical ease and purity of style which should characterize the writings of the finished scholar. Yet, when we consider that the work is, in some measure, avowedly a conjoint production; that, in preparing it for the press, the ostensible author enjoyed the friendly assistance of Dr. Richardson; and that it was sent forth under the sanction of the Government; we feel disposed to regret that not a few defective or incorrect expressions have been allowed to mar the goodly simplicity of the text.

The different routes are very distinctly laid down on the charts, and most of the engravings are handsomely executed by Finden, from drawings by Mr. Back and Mr. Hood: but it is said that only a few of the latter's drawings are here presented to us, and we cannot but ask what has become of the rest? The want of an index is an inconvenience.

. While this sheet is under correction, the news-papera announce the return of Capt. Parry and his associates, without having effected their grand object.

ART. VI. *The Siege of Valencia; a Dramatic Poem. The last Constantine: with other Poems.* By Mrs. Hemans. 8vo. pp. 920. Boards. Murray. 1823.

IT is with pleasure that we have remarked in the writings of Mrs. Hemans that gradual and substantial improvement, which is always indicative of high merit and talent; and which, while it makes no rash promises, realizes every honorable anticipation. We well recollect the earliest efforts of her muse, which she gave to the world at a period when her taste was necessarily unformed and her powers immature: but these specimens of juvenile ability encouraged a hope of higher success, which has since been fulfilled. To become a poet has been with Mrs. Hemans, as with almost every other writer, the work of time. She appears, indeed, to have been born with that attachment and predisposition to the art, which is the true foundation of the poetical character: but her genius was not of that over-mastering kind which at once rushes to the high place of its destination. She possessed the germ of poetic inspiration within her breast, but she shoots which it sent forth needed nourishment and cultivation.

In her earlier productions, we had not to complain of false taste, or of perverted feeling, or of extravagance in sentiment or in language: but we were sometimes displeased with the undecided character of the compositions. Mistrusting her powers, she dared not venture on a track of her own, and thus too often contented herself with the common-places of poetry. This defect, it is obvious, could only give way before a more matured judgment, and a more perfect skill in her art; which were necessary to induce her with confidence in her own strength, and to remit her to the guidance of her own poetical spirit.

Her later productions, however, have manifested this more original tone, and this bolder reliance on her own resources; and the present work is calculated to strengthen their claim to that character, since it exhibits a more strict and intimate acquaintance with poetic feelings than the fair writer has hitherto displayed, and a happier and easier use of poetic diction. In the last of her publications which we noticed, she confined herself principally to the narrative-style: but she has now ventured on a dramatic attempt, and has added some lyrical specimens, which are exceedingly creditable to her pen.

By the selection of subjects for her muse, Mrs. Hemans has in this volume displayed considerable tact and knowledge of her own powers of verse. A chivalrous and even a martial strain flows freely from her lyre, which never sends forth

nobler sounds than when it celebrates the battles of freedom or the achievements of romance. With such dispositions, the fame of the Cid naturally attracted her regards. Indeed, the history of that hero possesses a singular charm, celebrated as he has been in the rude but fascinating ballads of his country; and we know not any writer by whom the high romantic character of that old poetry has been more successfully caught than by Mrs. Hemans, who has transferred it into her elegant and polished verse with great fidelity and happiness. We would instance the lyrical songs with which the 'Siege of Valencia' is interspersed, as specimens of this kind of composition in which she has been most successful; and which have an air of romantic magnificence and grandeur thrown around them, that is admirably suited to the subject.

'The Cid's Battle-Song,' which we extract, is a very noble effort.

'The Moor is on his way!
With the tambour-peal and the tecbir-shout,
And the horn o'er the blue seas ringing out,
He hath marshall'd his dark array!

'Shout through the vine-clad land!
That her sons on all their hills may hear,
And sharpen the point of the red wolf-spear,
And the sword for the brave man's hand!

[The citizens join in the song, while they continue arming themselves.]

'Banners are in the field!
The chief must rise from his joyous board,
And turn from the feast ere the wine be pour'd,
And take up his father's shield!

'The Moor is on his way!
Let the peasant leave his olive-ground,
And the goats roam wild through the pine-woods round!
— There is nobler work to-day!

'Send forth the trumpet's call!
Till the bridegroom cast the goblet down,
And the marriage-robe and the flowery crown,
And arm in the banquet-hall!

'And stay the funeral-train!
Bid the chanted mass be hush'd awhile,
And the bier laid down in the holy aisle,
And the mourners girt for Spain!

[They take up the banner, and follow Ximena out. Their voices are heard gradually dying away at a distance.]

'Ere

' Ere night, must swords be red !
It is not an hour for knells and tears,
But for helmets braced, and serried spears !
To-morrow for the dead !

' The Cid is in array !
His steed is barbed, his plume waves high,
His banner is up in the sunny sky,
Now, joy for the Cross to-day !

We are induced by the spirit and fine imagination of the piece to give another ' Song of the Cid,' founded on a passage in Spentey's Chronicle.

' The Cid's Rising.

' 'Twas the deep mid-watch of the silent night,
And Leon in slumber lay,
When a sound went forth, in rushing might,
Like an army on its way !
In the stillness of the hour,
When the dreams of sleep have power,
And men forget the day.

' Through the dark and lonely streets it went,
Till the slumberers woke in dread ; —
The sound of a passing armament,
With the charger's stony tread.
There was heard no trumpet's peal,
But the heavy tramp of steel,
As a host's, to combat led.

' Through the dark and lonely streets it pass'd,
And the hollow pavement rang,
And the towers as with a sweeping blast,
Rock'd to the stormy clang !
But the march of the viewless train
Went on to a royal fane,
Where a priest his night-hymn sang.

' There was knocking that shook the marble floor,
And a voice at the gate, which said —
" That the Cid Ruy Diez, the Campeador,
Was there in his arms array'd ;
And that with him, from the tomb,
Had the Count Gonzalez come,
With a host, uprisen to aid ;

' " And they came for the buried king that lay
At rest in that ancient fane ;
For he must be arm'd on the battle-day,
With them, to deliver Spain !"

— Then the march went sounding on,
And the Moors, by noontide sun,
Were dust on Tolosa's plain.

When we contemplate the achievements of this illustrious hero, whether it be in the rude but splendid ballads of his native land or in the fine imitations of them which Mrs. Hemans has produced, we cannot refrain from expressing a sentiment of degradation and shame at the fate with which Spain is at this moment visited. Is there not, among her nobility or her captains, one unyielding arm or one faithful heart to emulate the heroic virtues of "the Campesador?" Apathy seems to have unnerved the hands of her soldiers, and treason to have corrupted the hearts of her commanders.

As a pure drama, this play cannot receive unqualified praise: but indeed it is rather a dramatic poem, as Mrs. Hemans has properly termed it; full of high chivalric poetry, and fitted not for the stage but for the closet. We cannot afford, nor indeed is it necessary, to give any idea of the plot: but we select from many beautiful passages the following lines, which are full both of thought and poetry.

‘ Thou little know’st

Of what is solitude! — I tell thee, those
 For whom — in earth’s remotest nook — howe’er
 Divided from their path by chain on chain
 Of mighty mountains, and the amplitude
 Of rolling seas — there beats one human heart,
 There breathes one being unto whom their name
 Comes with a thrilling and a gladdening sound
 Heard o’er the din of life! are not alone;
 Not on the deep, nor in the wild, alone;
 For there is that on earth with which they hold
 A brotherhood of soul! — Call *him* alone,
 Who stands shut out from this! — And let not those
 Whose homes are bright with sunshine and with love,
 Put on the insolence of happiness,
 Glorying in that proud lot! — A lonely hour
 Is on its way to each, to all; for Death
 Knows no companionship.’ (P. 125.)

We add another singularly pleasing passage, which would do credit to any of our living poets:

— ‘ There is none,

In all this cold and hollow world, no fount
 Of deep, strong, deathless love, save that within
 A mother’s heart. — It is but pride, wherewith
 To his fair son the father’s eye doth turn,
 Watching his growth. Aye, on the boy he looks,
 The bright glad creature springing in his path,
 But as the heir of his great name, the young
 And stately tree, whose rising strength ere long
 Shall bear his trophies well. — And this is love!

This

This is *man's* love! — What marvel? — *you* ne'er made
 Your breast the pillow of his infancy,
 While to the fulness of your heart's glad heavings
 His fair cheek rose and fell; and his bright hair
 Waved softly to your breath! — *You* ne'er kept watch
 Beside him, till the last pale star had set,
 And morn, all dazzling, as in triumph, broke
 On your dim weary eye; not *yours* the face
 Which, early faded through fond care for him,
 Hung o'er his sleep, and, duly as heaven's light,
 Was there to greet his wakening! *You* ne'er smooth'd
 His couch, ne'er sung him to his rosy rest,
 Caught his least whisper, when his voice from yours
 Had learned soft utterance; press'd your lip to his,
 When fever parch'd it; hush'd his wayward cries,
 With patient, vigilant, never-wearied love!
 No! these are *woman's* tasks! — In these her youth,
 And bloom of cheek, and buoyancy of heart,
 Steal from her all unmark'd! '(P. 120.)

We regret that we cannot give any extracts from 'the Last Constantine,' which is a poem well worthy of Mrs. Hemans's pen.

In conclusion, we can only exhort this fair votary of the muses to persevere in the course which she has hitherto pursued with so much success. When we review the progress which she has made, and more especially when we turn to this last production of her pen, we feel assured that she cannot be under better guidance than that of her own taste and judgment. Let her continue to study, with the same devotion and fervour as heretofore, the works of our great poets: — let her cherish that high moral sense which pervades all her writings; — and we do not doubt that we shall see her assume her merited station among the leading poets of her age.

ART. VII. *The Principle of the English Poor-Laws illustrated and defended*, by an Historical View of Indigence in Civil Society; with Observations and Suggestions relative to their improved Administration. By Frederick Page, Esq., one of his Majesty's Deputy-Lieutenants for the County of Berks. 8vo. pp. 108. 4s. sewed. Hatchard, &c.

'POVERTY,' says Mr. Page, 'is compatible with honesty and respectability; indigence with the former; but mendicity with neither, and is, indeed, the first step to dishonesty.' (P. 37.) When mendicity becomes an habitual occupation, a *trade*, it is incompatible with honesty, because the object of the mendicant is to raise money under any pretences; true,

true, perhaps, as long as they answer the purpose, but false most probably, without scruple, when others do not. As soon as Gil Blas had left his uncle's house at Oviedo to seek his fortune, he threw the reins over his mule's neck, and began to count into his hat the number of ducats that were in his pocket: "For the love of God," exclaimed a feeble voice, "bestow your charity, Signor, upon a poor wounded soldier, and Heaven will reward you!" Turning towards the spot whence the voice proceeded, he saw a man in the garb of a soldier, about twenty-yards off, resting his carbine on a forked stick in the ground, and deliberately taking aim at him. Gil Blas took the hint, "bestowed his charity," clapped spurs to his mule, and made off as fast as he could. — The trade of such *furulent* beggars (if we may coin the word) is not less honest than was the trade of those fraudulent but sanctimonious mendicants, who issued forth in swarms from monasteries in former days under the denominations of Carmelites, Capuchins, and Dominicans, Hermits of the Order of St. Francis, and Hermits of the Order of St. Augustin. To make the slightest allusion to *modern* mendicants, however, either religious or political, would be a breach of good manners which we shall not commit; indeed, whenever a general and sweeping censure is passed, "the present company" is always excepted from its application. It is with *poor* beggars, moreover, that we are at present concerned.

We have before us a very good pamphlet on this subject; though perhaps it may be thought that its display of learning is superfluous in a work for practical use. The author has largely consulted the Greek and Latin writers of antiquity, to shew what means were adopted for the maintenance of the poor at Athens, at Sparta, and at Rome; he has made repeated visits to the Continent, and compared the state of indigence in foreign countries with that in England; and he has argued the abstract question of the natural and indefeasible *right* of man in civil society to subsistence from the stores of his more fortunate fellow-creatures, deciding it in the affirmative.

Mr. Malthus's proposal for abolishing our poor-laws results from a dogmatical assumption that the poor have no right to relief. After a godly exhortation from the clergyman to his pauper-audience, touching the sinfulness of marriage *among them*, he accordingly recommended the legislature to enact that, from a given period, no parochial assistance should at any time, or under any circumstance, be afforded to the offspring of marriages thereafter to be contracted, or to illegitimates thereafter born. Luckily, however, Mr. Malthus raised his frightful superstructure on a rotten foundation; for the poor

poor have a right to relief, every where, and in all parts of the civilized world. Man has a natural and abstract right to subsistence every where; and, in England, to the recognition of this abstract right is added a legal claim. Every person born in this country has an acknowledged right to subsistence; and this, which is the popular feeling and the popular belief, is also the law of the land. A few words on this subject may not be amiss.

"There is yet another case of necessity," says Blackstone, (b. iv. ch. ii. § vi. 4.) "which has occasioned great speculation among the writers upon general law; viz. whether a man in extreme want of food or clothing may justify stealing either, to relieve his present necessities. And this both Grotius and Puffendorf, together with many other of the foreign jurists, hold in the affirmative; maintaining by many ingenious, humane, and plausible reasons, that in such cases the community of goods by a kind of tacit concession of society is revived." Among the absolute rights of man, is "that of personal security, consisting in a person's legal and uninterrupted enjoyment of his life, his limbs, his body, health, and reputation; life is the immediate gift of God, a right inherent by nature in every individual." (Ibid. b. i. ch. i.) Would it not be a contradiction in terms to recognize a right and disallow the means of preserving it? When, therefore, Blackstone goes on to say that this doctrine of Grotius and Puffendorf, and which some of our own lawyers have also held, "seems to be unwarranted," he qualifies the remark by adding that "at least it is now antiquated, the law of England admitting no such excuse at present." Then comes the question, why does not the law of England admit such an excuse; for both the life and the limbs of a man are of such high value in the estimation of that law, that it pardons even homicide if committed *se defendendo*, or in order to preserve them? The reason is that the law not only regards life and member, but protects every man in the enjoyment of them, and furnishes him with every thing necessary for their support. "For there is no man so indigent or wretched but he may demand a supply sufficient for all the necessities of life from the more opulent part of the community: a humane provision, yet, though dictated by the principles of society, discountenanced by the Roman laws. For the edicts of the Emperor Constantine, commanding the public to maintain the children of those who were unable to provide for them, in order to prevent the murder and exposure of infants, an institution founded on the same principles as our Foundling Hospitals, though comprized in the Theodosian Code, were

rejected in Justinian's Collection." We find Blackstone, therefore, virtually recognizing the abstract right of every man to supply himself with the means of maintaining life, as founded in nature and reason: but adding that it is merged in his civil duties and is sacrificed to public convenience in this country, in consideration of the provisions which society has there made for the protection of every man in the enjoyment of his life, and for supplying him with every thing necessary to support it. The properties of men, he observes, would be under a strange insecurity, if liable to be invaded according to the wants of others, of which wants no man can possibly be an adequate judge but the party himself who pleads them; and in this country, especially, there would be a peculiar impropriety in admitting so dubious an excuse: for by our laws such sufficient provision is made for the poor by the power of the civil magistrate, that the most needy stranger cannot be reduced to the absolute necessity of thieving to support nature. This case of a stranger is, by the way, the strongest instance put by Baron Puffendorf as the basis of his principal arguments; which, however they may hold good on the Continent, where the parsimonious industry of the natives orders every one to work or starve, must lose all their weight and efficacy in England, where charity is reduced to a system, and interwoven in our very constitution.

Though no compulsory method was devised for the maintenance of the poor till the time of Henry VIII., yet by certain statutes in the reigns of Richard II. and Henry VII. the poor are directed to abide in the cities or towns wherein they were born, or had dwelt for three years; and it appears by "*The Mirrour*," as quoted by the above writer, that, by the common law, the poor were "to be sustained by parsons, rectors of the church, and the parishioners; so that none of them die for default of sustenance."

The principle of our poor-laws is excellent; *that* needs no defence: — but in the detail they are so bad, often in the administration so harsh, and in the assessment so preposterously unjust, that no labor can be more commendably bestowed than that which has for its object to reform them. Compassion, which may be defined a participation in the painful feelings of another, is perhaps to be ranked among the original impulses of human nature: — it prompts to the relief of human suffering, and is an emanation from the Divinity itself: — experience, however, has instructed us that it is too unsteady in its operation to allow us to exclusively rely on it. The disposition and the ability to relieve the wretched do not always correspond, and frequently do not meet in the same person:

person: it may be necessary to extort from the iron-hearted miser his grudging uncharitable contribution; and it may be advisable to check the generous alms-deeds of others, whose sympathy and susceptibility of nature make them liable to imposition by the mere semblance of misery.

Although the French have no poor-laws, they have, in addition to the private beneficence of individuals, various munificent institutions, endowed by gifts during the life of the donors, or testamentary; and in the year 1816 a system of domiciliary relief for the city of Paris was organized and promulgated by the French king, to which the labors of M. de Gerando principally contributed.* To shew, however, the uncertainty of that relief which is dependant on individual benevolence, we give the following passage from the pamphlet before us, which states a fact — if indeed we must receive so incredible an account as true — of the most shocking nature.

‘ The Encyclopædia † had ridiculed, as superstitious, the respect in which the establishments, founded on Christian principles, for the relief of suffering humanity, had been hitherto held; they were condemned as narrow in their views, and founded on principles too confined for the great and extended views of philanthropy, with which the golden age of the French Revolution was to bless mankind. The National Convention, therefore, expressly recognizing the right of the poor to relief, determined on concentrating and generalizing all institutions of this nature, by raising a fund for this purpose from the nation at large, and selling all the property attached to the hospitals and establishments of this kind. This last measure was the only one adopted; and further, by the imposition of oaths which their conscience would not permit them to take, they lost the services of that most excellent order of men, — the *curés*, or parish-priests; and of those amiable and exemplary females, the *Sœurs de Charité*, whom a spirit of religion had devoted to the labours of active charity.

‘ But the error was soon discovered; and in less than a year after the decree for the sale, it was repealed, when three-fifths of the property had been sold. But during this interval the poor languished and died, in poverty and distress; and in the defect of the means of the relief of one branch of indigence, the loss of human life would be almost incredible, if the fact was not ascertained by unquestionable documents. In the year 10 of the Revolution, the mean revenues of the hospitals at Lyons had been reduced to one-third. Owing to this deficit, there were insufficient funds to provide for the children brought into the Foundling Hospital there; and out of eight hundred and twenty children brought in

* See his pamphlet intitled “ *Le Visiteur du Pauvre*,” of which we gave a brief notice in the Appendix to our ninety-second volume, page 470.

† “ Dupin, — *Histoire de l’Administration de Secours Public.*”
from

from May, 1795, to January, 1796, *twenty-eight* only were alive on the 1st of February, 1796. *

But the consular government re-established these administrations on a firmer foundation; and under Bonaparte and Louis XVIII. they have assumed a character and consistency, combining, in some degree, the establishments previous to the Revolution with those which grew out of it.

Under the term "*Hospital*," are comprehended the receptacles for sickness and casualties; under that of "*Hospice*," places of reception for the poor and impotent. The "*Dépôts de Mendicité*" are intended to prevent beggary.

Till the time of Henry VIII., the poor of England subsisted entirely on private benevolence; and at the dissolution of the monasteries the numerous and idle poor, whose daily sustenance had been drawn from those institutions, dispersed themselves over the kingdom to the great annoyance of the public. They were principally of two sorts: the sick, or those who from age, infancy, or infirmity, were unable to work; and the idle, but sturdy, who were unwilling to exercise any honest employment. Royal hospitals were provided for the relief of the former, and Bridewell for the punishment of the latter: but these measures proving insufficient, overseers of the poor were first appointed in every parish by statute 43 Eliz. c. 2. The objects of that statute were, first, to relieve the impotent poor; and them only; and, secondly, to find employment for such as were able to work, by providing stocks of raw materials to be worked up at their separate houses, instead of accumulating all the poor in one common workhouse.† This was a much more humane and beneficial provision than the feeding and clothing of innumerable beggars at the gates of religious houses. The principle of the statute of Elizabeth was to relieve none but those who were incapable of obtaining their livelihood, and to do that for them in proportion to their incapacities: the able poor, being furnished with employment, were allowed the profits of their labor; children were not

* "Description Physique et Politique du Departement du Rhone, par Vernignac, *ancien prefet*."

† "The churchwardens and overseers of the poor shall 'take order from time to time for setting to work the children of all such whose parents shall not, by the said churchwardens and overseers, or the greater part of them, be thought able to keep and maintain their children; and also for setting to work all such persons, married or unmarried, as have no means to maintain them and use no ordinary and daily trade of life to get their living by.' — "And also to raise by taxation, &c., a convenient stock of flax, hemp, thread, wool, iron, and other necessary ware and stuff to set the poor on work." Stat. 43 Eliz. c. 2.

removed from their parents, except such as were brought up in rags and idleness; and any man was at liberty to seek employment wherever it was to be had: — none being obliged to reside in the places of their settlement but such as were unable or unwilling to work; and those places of settlement being only where they were *born*, or had made their *abode*, originally for three years, and afterward, in the case of vagabonds, for one year only. Such was the principle of the statute of Elizabeth; and what Mr. Justice Blackstone said sixty years ago is equally true now, that the farther any subsequent plans for maintaining the poor have departed from this institution, the more impracticable and even pernicious their visionary attempts have proved. The laws which have been subsequently enacted with respect to settlements, making the acquisition of them depend on birth, parentage, marriage, forty days' residence and notice, a year's rental of ten pounds, servitude, apprenticeship, serving parochial office, &c. &c.; these various and intricate conditions have created an infinity of expensive law-suits between contending neighbourhoods, concerning settlements and removals.

Mr. Page tells us that he has himself served the office of overseer in three different parishes, and 'since the year 1818 has paid considerable attention to carrying the Select Vestry-Act into execution.' Of its beneficial effects he speaks in very high terms, and the experience of such an observer carries great weight. That experience has enabled him also to furnish some practical suggestions respecting the classification and management of the poor, which will probably be considered as the most useful part of the present tract.

ART. VIII. *A Letter to the Right Honourable George Canning, on the Principle and the Administration of the English Poor-Laws. By a Select Vestryman of the Parish of Putney. 8vo. pp. 109. sewed. Cadell. 1823.*

WE have rarely perused a pamphlet more pregnant with good sense and good feeling than the present. If, however, the 'Select Vestryman' will refer to our preceding article, he will find that he mistakes in supposing that the *right* of the indigent to relief from the general property of the community, though admitted in practice, was never before unequivocally avowed and advocated. The evils arising from the partial, defective, and slovenly administration of the poor-laws have often most unjustly been ascribed to the principle of them, and have brought that principle into disrepute, though
founded,

founded, as it is, in wisdom, equity, and humanity. Certain political economists have advanced the revolting doctrine that the table of nature, like the table of a private gentleman, is spread for a given number of guests only, who are invited by the master of the feast to eat, drink, and be merry themselves; and who arrogate the right of driving away all others as intruders. That Master, then, who "fillet the hungry with good things, and sendeth the rich empty away," is represented by them as having revoked his order to "bring in hither the poor, the maimed, the halt, and the blind," and as having issued another to fill the rich with good things and send empty away those wretched and hungry supplicants.

The refusal of relief to the poor when in actual want, it is well observed, is seldom or never hazarded in its naked inhumanity, or pursued to its necessary consequences, but is advanced under color of a regard for their better interests, truly! as a necessary though severe policy. It is pretended that want is sufficient evidence of idleness, extravagance, or vice; that the cause of indigence may be traced to the habits and morals of the poor; and that to induce every man to provide for his own necessities, we have only to remove the prospect of extraneous assistance! Oh, most impotent and heartless reasoning! When the wages of the laborer in his full health and vigor never exceed the decent and comfortable subsistence of himself, his wife, and the average number of children, but in four cases out of five come far short of that decent and comfortable maintenance, we still reproach him that he has not laid by a provision for the day of sickness, accident, and old age! It seems as if we thought that poor men were only created as machines to perform the labor of the rich. Man — the poor man — "goeth forth in the morning to his work and to his labor until the evening;" if he chance to stray, for the indulgence of some recreation from his tiresome task, to the dance or the song, to the May-pole or the village-wake, the overseer reproaches him with idling away his time; and he forfeits his claim to any assistance. Even considering the poor as a machine to execute the work of the rich, that machine, like every other, to do its work well must be kept in good order; the wheels, pulleys, spindles, pivots, &c., must be kept *well-oiled* and clean; and the resistance to be overcome must not exceed the power applied to it. If a machine be suffered to get out of repair by inattention to these matters, and in its full speed a main wheel breaks, to repair the mischief is infinitely more expensive than to have prevented it. So, to restore a poor man, the prop of his family, to the health, strength, and alacrity which he has lost by hard labor and dejection arising from

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insufficiency of food, fuel, and clothing, is much more costly — stating the case as a mere question of profit and loss — than it would have been to have preserved this man in unabated vigor by more mitigated labor, and by a portion of the comforts in addition to the bare necessities of life.

It is not true that the statute of the 43d of Elizabeth encourages idleness: on the contrary, it enforces labor by disallowing the claim to assistance in any case which does not imply entire or partial helplessness: though it enacts, indeed, that work *shall be found* for all such persons as have no means to maintain themselves. From the difficulty of carrying this clause into execution, it is practically abandoned, except in those common sewers of society called Workhouses. In furnishing work, however, for those who are able to perform it, there is no stipulated remuneration which can possibly tempt the applicants to quarter themselves on the poor's rate. Low as the wages always are of the independent laborer, they are still higher than the wages given by the overseer or surveyor at a parish gravel-pit. It is unjust, therefore, to charge the poor-laws with encouraging an amount of population beyond the demand for it. Ireland has no poor-laws, England has; England annually disburses her millions among the poor, Ireland recognizes no legal and compulsory provision for indigence and helplessness; and yet it is in Ireland that we hear complaints of over-population, not in England.

‘ In Scotland, between which and England a comparison has often been drawn on this subject highly favourable to the former, the main feature of the poor-laws is the same as in England; viz. that actual want shall be relieved, and that, if other means be inadequate to the object, recourse shall be had to compulsory assessments. In manufacturing and commercial parishes, the assessment has been introduced. In agricultural and pastoral parishes, it is unknown in practice; but even in these, with very few exceptions, among a population distinguished for industry and economy, the wants of the poor have exceeded the voluntary contributions of the benevolent. Where the assessment has not been brought into operation, its introduction has only been prevented or delayed by the adoption of a substitute, differing from it in name only and not in reality. When the necessities of the poor require more than the charitable contributions produce, the heritors or proprietors of land, on the deficiency being intimated to them, meet and agree to raise, by an equal levy, according to their property, the sum that may be required. This mode of raising money for the relief of the poor, by a rateable proportion on the only property that will bear the impost, is, in fact, an assessment without the formalities of the law. In many parishes of Scotland it is practicable, and where it is so, it may be wise to adopt it. Such a surrender of property, however, is not entitled to

to the character of benevolence, because, if the heritors should demur to the proposal, it would be taken from them by a power which they could not resist. It is no voluntary sacrifice on the part of the heritor, because, if the assessment should collect it from the tenant, it would cause a reduction of his rent to that amount. His only merit is paying directly what would be extorted from him by a more circuitous process.'

The author of this pamphlet recommends the introduction of a poor-system into Ireland, where it is regarded with undisguised abhorrence, similar to that of England, but with a better machinery for its management. Ours is attended with a vast expenditure: but can Ireland, says he, see nothing in the tranquillity, opulence, and comfort of the general population of this country to compensate for the sacrifice? General vagrancy itself is an evil of no ordinary magnitude; it was indeed to repress that evil that the English poor-laws were established; and any plan for ameliorating the condition of the lower classes of the Irish must be bottomed on the suppression of their erratic and mendicant habits. — It is evident that the writer of these pages ascribes not merely the wretchedness of the cottier, but the general state of turbulence which prevails in Ireland, to the want of some compulsory assessment in behalf of the poor: but here he carries his principle too far; for he seems entirely to have overlooked the dreadful operation of the Catholic code, and the ascendancy of a handful, comparatively speaking, of Protestants, supported in exclusive privileges, and aided by the most richly-endowed church in the world in domineering over the great mass of the people. Where no poor-laws exist, mendicity must be legalized, and will become a trade; men will not lie tamely down on the road and die of hunger, because the laws make mendicity a punishable offence; they will have recourse to robbery and rapine. Therefore, the question is *utrum horum?* which is the least of the three evils, habits of robbery, legalized mendicity, or a compulsory provision for the helpless? The answer does not admit of a moment's hesitation.

After some preliminary observations in defence of the principle of our poor-laws, the 'Select Vestryman' gives a detailed account of the reformation, economical and moral, effected in the course of four years in the parish of Putney. He does not intimate in what degree it was produced by his own exertions! but, after having read this pamphlet, which is addressed to Mr. Canning, and which we hope that gentleman may find leisure to peruse, we can have no doubt that the parish of Putney is under great obligations to him.

ART. IX. *A Treatise on Nervous Diseases.* By John Cooke, M.D. F.A.S. late Physician to the London Hospital, &c. &c. In 2 Vols. Vol. I. on Apoplexy, including *Apoplexia Hydrocephalica*, or Water in the Head; with an Introductory Account of the Opinions of ancient and modern Physiologists respecting the Nature and Uses of the Nervous System, read at the College of Physicians as the Croonian Lectures of the Year 1819. 8vo. pp. 469. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

ART. X. *History and Method of Cure of the various Species of Palsy*: being the First Part of the Second Volume of a Treatise on Nervous Diseases. By John Cooke, M.D., &c. 8vo. pp. 215. Longman and Co.

OUR medical knowledge is at present in a state of such very great accumulation, that few persons have leisure or opportunities sufficient to enable them to trace the history and treatment of diseases, from the early periods in which we find them first noticed in the records of medicine, down to the present day; yet all will admit that to do this would be highly important to individual improvement, and to the general interests of medical science. The writings of physicians have usually been composed with the professed object of communicating some new view of the history, the nature, or the treatment of disease; and rarely with the modest intention of exhibiting, in a faithful digest, the results of preceding labors in the same field of inquiry. It is therefore with much pleasure that we now welcome the appearance of a work of this latter description, by a physician of talents, and of such experience as will enable him to speak with confidence of the value of those statements which he has collected from the writings of others.

In some preliminary remarks, Dr. Cooke has explained his views on this subject with much modesty and good sense.

‘ If the example which I have presumed to set should be followed — if persons, better qualified for the task than myself, would investigate other important diseases on a similar plan, a system of medicine would be formed which might prove eminently useful, both by lessening the labours of the student, and affording practical facilities to persons actually engaged in the duties of the profession.

‘ After an experience in medicine of many years, I have ventured occasionally to introduce into this compilation my own opinions and practice, as well as to comment upon those of others; but I trust that in this I have betrayed no signs of dogmatism, or self-confidence.’

In the introductory essay on the Nature and Uses of the Nervous System, which occupies considerably more than a fourth part of the first volume, we have an extended and amusing

‘‘anastomosing’’ (though not very profound) view of the various opinions held on this subject, so inexhaustibly prolific in speculation. These are traced from Hippocrates, Plato, and Aristotle, through the writings of the disciples of the Alexandrian school, of the Arabian physicians, and their successors, down to M. Le Gallois, Dr. Wilson Philip, and Doctors Gall and Spurzheim. The ideal theory, so successfully combated by Dr. Reid, is also brought under review; and the doctrines of the materialists are considered at some length. The author is inclined to believe that the ideal theory is not inconsistent with a belief in the existence of an external material world. ‘The theory of perception,’ he observes, ‘by images or pictures necessarily implies the existence of something external, of which they are pictures or images.’ (P. 151.) This is one of the very few instances, throughout the whole of this introductory paper, in which Dr. C. ventures to throw the weight of his opinion into the scale of any of the speculators. Indeed, so great are his impartiality, and his anxiety not to misrepresent the writers whose opinions he reports, that he has sometimes been betrayed by these feelings into prolixity, and at others has testified a degree of deference for doctrines the absurdity of which we think he must have felt. The dissatisfaction, with which he rises from this unprofitable discussion respecting the nervous system, may be seen from the following passage:

‘‘Physiologists have often erred by paying more attention to the investigation of the nature of the subjects of their enquiries, than to that of the laws by which they are governed. Of the ultimate nature or essence, either of mind or matter, or of that compound which we call the Nervous System, we know nothing about the laws by which it is governed, or rather the circumstances by which it is influenced, we know enough to enable us, in some degree at least, to understand the nature and causes, and to explain the phenomena of many of its morbid affections. Instead, therefore, of perplexing ourselves in vain efforts to comprehend what the great Author of nature has placed beyond our reach, and indulging in speculations which, however interesting, can lead to no satisfactory conclusion, let us turn our attention to a subject better suited to our powers, namely, the investigation of the diseases of the nervous system.’’

The portion of the work which is dedicated to the subject of Apoplexy is arranged with methodical clearness, under the several heads of Definition and History, Dissections, Causes of Apoplexy, Distinctions into different Species, Diagnosis, Prognosis, and Treatment; and in each of these divisions, Dr. C. has presented us with a very complete and satisfactory view of every thing important that is known respecting this disease. Not much, however, is added from his own stores;

stores; nor are his critical remarks often of such a nature as to attract our notice. He states it as his belief that recovery sometimes takes place from the strong apoplexy; and he adds,

‘ I am informed by Dr. Baillie, Mr. Astley Cooper, Mr. Wilson, and other professional friends, that in many cases where persons had recovered from apoplexy, evident marks of effusion of blood have a long time afterwards been found in the brain. Mr. Cooper has favoured me with a communication on this subject, in which he says, “ The dissections which I have made of cases of apoplexy, and extravasations of blood upon the brain from accident, have led me to the belief that the effused blood never becomes absorbed, but that the brain gradually acquires the power of bearing its pressure, and that thus the symptoms which are produced at the first moments of general extravasation gradually diminish.” ’

The instances adduced in continuation by Sir Astley Cooper certainly prove that, in those cases at least, the extravasated blood had not been absorbed; but they were cases of only a few months’ duration, and do not by any means shew that such absorption never takes place. Indeed, it seems difficult to account for the appearances exhibited by apoplectic cysts, which were so well described by Dr. John Hunter in the *Gulstonian Lectures*, (1796,) and afterward by Dr. Baillie, without admitting the reality of such absorption of blood extravasated into the substance of the brain. — On inspecting the body of a person who had suffered a paralytic attack 21 months before, we found, in the posterior part of the left hemisphere of the cerebrum, an irregular elongated cavity, containing about one ounce of turbid serous fluid, and communicating with the lateral ventricle of the same side. It was lined with a distinct membrane, which in some places lay in folds, and exhibited several tortuous capillary vessels filled with red blood. This cavity seemed as if formed at some remote period by the rupture of the posterior wall of the inferior cornu of the left lateral ventricle, for the appearance of the natural structure of that part was completely destroyed. In this instance, it was very improbable that the texture of the brain could have suffered so great an injury without extravasation of blood; yet here only serous fluid was discovered.

In the treatment of apoplexy, Dr. Cooke advocates the propriety of blood-letting, with much clearness and strength of argument; and he exhibits, in his account of the opposite doctrine, an amusing illustration of those discrepancies of opinion among medical practitioners, which have so often brought scandal on the profession. When apoplexy is

ascribed to the suppression of accustomed discharges, or to metastasis of disease; Dr. C. attaches much weight to the restoration of these antecedent maladies: but the great object, in all such cases, is to relieve the apoplectic state by every powerful remedy within our reach, and at our leisure to attend to those diseases which are thus supposed to have migrated from their accustomed seats. Any other practical doctrine will endanger the safety of our patients, by leading us to neglect the adoption of those vigorous measures which a little delay will certainly render ineffectual.

After the consideration of apoplexy, Dr. Cooke proceeds to make a few remarks on other soporose diseases: lethargy, coma, carus, cataphora, catalepsy, extasy: which are briefly discussed by him without adducing any thing particularly worthy of remark, excepting a curious case of a young lady, who was subject to frequent fits of profound and long-continued sleep, which were at last followed by an attack of mental derangement.

The author next takes up the subject of *Hydrocephalus internus*, to which he was in all probability led by the arrangement of Cullen, who has referred it to the genus apoplexy. The true hydrocephalus, both acute and chronic, certainly wants that rapidity of progress which is distinctive of apoplexy: but there is one form of disease, which Gölis has named *Hydrocephalus hyperacutus*, and water-stroke, which without doubt belongs to the genus apoplexy, and may be considered as a sub-species of *Apoplexia serosa*. In this part of Dr. C.'s treatise, he has furnished us with a very complete view of the labors of our best writers, down to Coindet, on the subject of acute hydrocephalus: but perhaps too much deference is shewn by him to the opinions of Dr. C. Smyth, who, with many pretensions, had obviously a very imperfect knowledge of the disease in question. The subject of chronic hydrocephalus, either as a sequel of the acute or as a congenital disease, has not been once introduced by Dr. Cooke; an omission which we cannot help regretting. When he compiled this part of his volume, he was unacquainted with the work of Gölis; otherwise, we have no doubt, he would have gladly availed himself of the rich materials which it contains. Having so lately introduced to our readers Dr. Gooch's translation of that valuable treatise*, we shall not at present enter farther on the subject of hydrocephalus: but we cannot refrain from pointing out an error into which Dr. Cooke has fallen. He appears to regard Dr. Vose's case

* See our Number for May last, vol. ci.

(*Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, vol. ix. part ii.) as one of external hydrocephalus; in which, we are convinced by an examination of the paper, he is mistaken.

In the first part of Dr. Cooke's second volume, the subject of apoplexy is very properly followed by the consideration of Palsy, which is so frequently the effect of the former disease; and we have great pleasure in saying that, in our judgment, the author has executed this division of his task with still greater ability than he has shewn in the first volume. The matter is better condensed, the facts are more briefly expressed, the arrangement is more luminous, and the text is less loaded with quotations. The disease called Palsy is defined, a general history of it is given, and hemiplegia, paraplegia, and partial palsy, are successively described. The causes of paralytic affections are next considered; then follow the appearances on dissection, the diagnosis, and prognosis; and the discussion is closed by an account of the most approved modes of treatment.

On the subject of the causes of palsy, Dr. C. has entered at some length into a consideration of the opinions of M. Serres; and he has succeeded in shewing, very clearly, the fallacy of that gentleman's reasoning.

'M. Serres states, that he has in many instances thrown blood upon and into the meninges, the cavities, and the substance of the brain, without producing apoplexy or even somnolency; that upon the examination of a very great number of persons after death from apoplexy, he has found the meninges bearing evident marks of irritation (inflammation), accompanied with effusions of various kinds, and in various situations within the cranium; that sometimes he has observed the brain itself to have been injured in its substance, but without effusion; that in the former cases he has ascertained the preceding apoplexy to have been simple, and in the latter, combined with palsy; and that he has known many cases of apoplexy without effusion, and of effusion without apoplexy: and hence he concludes that he has overturned the doctrine of apoplexy and palsy from pressure, and has established a better system respecting the distinctions and nature of the diseases, than any hitherto presented to the world: but the accuracy of one of these conclusions at least, may, I think, be reasonably doubted.'—

'He has shown that blood has been effused in various situations within the cranium, without apoplexy; but he cannot hence fairly conclude that effusion never produces the disease. Since he admits that there is effusion in the meningeal apoplexy, how can he prove, even allowing it to be the consequence of what he calls irritation of the meninges, that the irritation, and not the effusion, is the immediate exciting cause of the disease. If compression by fluids were the cause of apoplexy, M. Serres says

there could be no apoplexy without effusion; but the want of logical precision here is evident, unless we grant, what I believe few physiologists would admit, that compression from fluids is the *only* cause of the disease. That some degree of pressure may be made on the brain without producing either coma or apoplexy, may be conceded as proved by M. Serres's experiments; but it by no means follows that a different or greater pressure would not produce these diseases; indeed, both observation and experiment decidedly show, that compression does sometimes, according to its degree, give occasion, first to somnolency, and then to complete apoplexy. It is a fact perfectly well known, that after the operation of the trepan, pressure on the part deprived of cranium produces these effects; and innumerable instances might be adduced in which compression by depressed bone, after accidents, has given occasion to coma and apoplexy.

Sir A. Cooper had the kindness to furnish the author with the particulars of an experiment on a dog, which places the effects of pressure on the brain, in producing apoplexy, in a very distinct point of view. This is one among many instances in which Dr. C. has been assisted in his inquiries by some of our most distinguished medical characters; and Dr. Abercrombie also has furnished a valuable communication, in which he states, with much clearness and brevity, the various causes, besides that of mere pressure, which occasionally give rise to palsy. All of these appear to induce this affection by altering the healthy organization of some part of the brain; — an effect which, we know, pressure will also undoubtedly produce.

Under the head of Treatment, the most approved methods and most efficacious remedies are duly considered. Palsy arising from disease of the vertebræ has not, however, received from the author all that attention which it merited; perhaps from a conviction that it falls most properly under the care of the surgeon. Dr. C. mentions the doubts which have arisen in the minds of some persons as to the efficacy of caustic issues in this disorder, but without explaining the views of those writers, or the plan which they suggest as a substitute for that practice. The horizontal posture, on which those gentlemen place much reliance, and which certainly is a powerful auxiliary in the treatment of the disease, is not mentioned by Dr. Cooke.

An appendix is subjoined, containing an abstract of a Report furnished by Dr. Gordon, of the facts noted in the practice of the British army during the years 1819 and 1820, respecting apoplexy and palsy. In England, during a period of six months, three cases of apoplexy and four of palsy occurred among 5999 cavalry; while of 11,865 infantry, during

during the same length of time, only one was attacked with apoplexy, and five with palsy. Among 6190 Veterans, three cases of apoplexy and four of palsy occurred. In the Indian peninsula, during a period of eight months, 15 cases of apoplexy and 18 of palsy took place among 12,800 men. Here we have distinct evidence of the effects of the accidents attending cavalry-service, of the influence of age, and of that of a warm climate, in producing these diseases.

We beg to congratulate Dr. Cooke on the successful prosecution of his labors, and to encourage him to carry them on to other diseases which, as yet, do not appear to have entered into his plan. We feel not a little obliged to him for the excellent monographs which he has thus furnished, of two very important disorders, apoplexy and palsy; and we cannot hesitate to recommend the volumes before us as valuable additions to the library of the medical student and even of the advanced practitioner. It is to be regretted, however, that in a work which is so professedly compiled, the author has occasionally neglected to note distinctly the publications containing the opinions and statements to which he has referred; and, should a second edition of this treatise be required, which its merits render highly probable, we hope that this omission will be supplied. Indeed, it would be an improvement to prefix, as botanical writers often do, a complete catalogue of the titles of all the works quoted. A still greater addition would be made to the value of these volumes by subjoining to each of them a full and accurate index, of which every reader who peruses them with attention must at present feel the want.

ART. XI. *The Philosophy of Zoology; or, a general View of the Structure, Functions, and Classification of Animals.* By John Fleming, D.D., Minister of Flisk, Fifeshire, F.R.S. Edinb., of the Wernerian Natural History Society, &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. With Engravings. Hurst and Co. 1822.

WE had some time ago occasion to report the *Philosophy of Zoology* by the Chevalier de Lamarck, and to point out a few of the extravagant and untenable positions of that ingenious but excentric naturalist. The present writer, however, whose scientific communications in the *Wernerian Transactions* we have also announced in the course of their publication, pursues a more sober track of thinking, and sustains throughout his pages the tone of accurate and consistent reasoning. His views are properly divested of the mere fragments of fancy and conjecture, are generally grounded on

correct principles, and are in strict accordance with the pious convictions of the creative and governing energies of the Deity. He has the merit, therefore, of having filled up an important class in British literature, and of having performed his task with a reference to the dictates of sound logic, as well as to the recent enlargements and discoveries in the department of natural science.

Rejecting that blind adherence to the principles and arrangements of the Linnéan school, which in this country has mainly contributed to retard the progress of zoological knowledge, Dr. Fleming commences his plan by assigning the limits between *orgenic* and *inorganic* matter; and the characters which he ascribes to each will, we presume, with a little latitude of interpretation, be generally admitted. At all events, the presence of the vital principle, whose phenomena we may in vain attempt to resolve into any description of mechanical or chemical action with which we are acquainted, will suffice to the discrimination of these two grand classes of natural objects. In virtue of their constitution, moreover, all living beings are induced with certain appetencies, or *instincts*, as they have been called, which enable them to regulate the supply of food, to subvert difficulties, to repair injuries, and to procreate their race. The conditions of vitality are judiciously considered under the heads of a *parent*, *moisture*, *temperature*, *atmospheric air*, and *nourishment*. While we are as reluctant as Dr. F. can be to adopt the notions of the antients with respect to equivocal generation, we cannot refrain from remarking that the origin of many of the intestinal vermes is still enveloped in obscurity; no satisfactory experiments having demonstrated its analogy to that of other tribes with whose history we are acquainted. Whence, for example, has proceeded the embryo of the solitary tapeworm, or whence the germ of those hydatids which inhabit the very substance of the liver, or other viscera?

'Before dismissing this part of our subject,' observes the author, 'it is necessary to take notice of those facts illustrative of the origin of *organized* beings, which have been ascertained by the researches of modern geologists. In investigating the structure and composition of the rocks which constitute the crust of the earth, it is observed, that they enclose the remains of animals or vegetables, more or less altered in their texture. Presupposing that those rocks on which all the others rest are the most ancient; and after dividing them according to their age, as determined by their superposition; it has been ascertained, that the organic remains found in the older rocks differ from those which occur in the more recent strata, and that they are all different from the plants and animals which now exist on the surface of the globe. It like-

wise

wise appears, that the petrifications contained in the newer strata bear a nearer resemblance to the existing races than those which belong to the rocks of an older date; and that the remains of those animals which have always been the companions of man are only to be found in the most recent of the alluvial deposits. In the older rocks, the impressions of the less perfect plants, such as ferns and reeds, are more numerous than those of the dicotyledonous tribes, and the remains of shells and corals abound, while there are few examples of petrified fish. In the more recent strata, the remains of reptiles, birds, and quadrupeds, occur, all of them differing from the existing kinds.

Attempts have been made to account for these circumstances by supposing, that the present races of animals and vegetables are the descendants of those whose remains have been preserved in the rocks, and that the difference of character may have arisen from a change in the physical constitution of the air, or the surface of the earth, producing a corresponding change on the forms of organized beings. The influence of cultivation on vegetables, of domestication on animals, and of climate on man himself, may be considered as strengthening the conjecture. But there are several difficulties which present themselves to those who adopt this opinion. The effect of circumstances on the appearance of living beings is circumscribed within certain limits, so that no transmutation of species was ever ascertained to take place; and it is well known that the fossil-species differ as much, nay more, from the recent kinds, as these last do from one another. It remains, likewise, for the abettors of this opinion, to connect the extinct with the living races, by ascertaining the intermediate links or transitions. This task, we fear, will not be executed speedily.

There is yet another view of the matter which suggests itself. If the seeds of some plants, and the eggs of certain animals, be so minute as to be excluded with difficulty from any place to which air and water have access, and if they are capable of retaining, for an indefinite length of time, the vital principle, when circumstances are not favourable to its evolution, the crust of the earth may be considered as a mere receptacle of germs, each of which is ready to expand into vegetable or animal forms, upon the occurrence of those conditions necessary to its growth. According to this view, the germs of the ferns and palms first expanded their leaves, and afterwards those of the staminiferous vegetables. With regard to animals, it may be supposed that the germs of the zoophytes only were first disclosed; afterwards those of the testaceous mollusca; and, finally, those of the vertebral animals:—that the organized beings of the first periods flourished during the continuance of the circumstances which were suitable to their growth; and that the change which prepared the way for the evolution of those which lived at a subsequent period contributed to the extinction of the earlier races.

According to this statement, there is little difficulty in accounting for the extinction and revival of the different races of the less perfect animals and vegetables, whose germs appear, even at

present, to be regulated according to such circumstances. But it offers no solution of the difficulty attending the preservation of the germs of the more perfect animals, many of which are inseparably connected with the parent, and require the continuance of her life to preserve vitality until the period of evolution. If, then, the present races of quadrupeds did not exist at the time when the mammoth and the other extinct quadrupeds, whose bones Cuvier has described with so much accuracy, were the denizens of our plains, at what period, and under what peculiar physical circumstances, were they called into being? Is the generation of organized beings simultaneous or successive? Have they all been created at once; but, in the progress of time, so modified by the influence of external agents, as now to appear under different forms? Or have they been called into being at different periods, according as the state of the earth became suitable for their reception? * The latter supposition is countenanced by many geological documents.

The modifications of the vital principle, as the healthy or diseased state of the system, age, monstrosity, &c. are next briefly reviewed; and it is asserted that this principle *forms the organized body*,—a position which some may be inclined to contest: but whether life precedes organization or organization precedes life, or whether they are of simultaneous origin, are points which seem to lie beyond the powers of our determination; and all that we can safely pronounce is that vitality, in the common acceptation of the term, resides only in organized forms. — Having stated the general properties, and characters of organized substances, the author proceeds, with much distinctness and ability, to illustrate the essential points of difference between animals and vegetables, in composition, structure, action, and nutrition; insisting particularly on the absence of a nervous system in vegetables, and on their consequent want of the faculties of sensation and voluntary motion.

The relations of the various kinds of beings to one another are discussed under the *Policy of Nature*. That the mass of the globe could exist without its organized inhabitants we are not disposed to question, if the proposition be taken in a general sense: but, if we admit the animal origin of some of the secondary lime-stones, and the vegetable origin of the coal-strata, it should not be received without limitation. Neither is it demonstrable that, if the earth were placed nearer the sun, or more remote from that luminary, organized existences would be destroyed by excess or defect of temperature; because it is

* See Cuvier's *Recherches sur les Ossemens Fossiles de Quadrupèdes*.

by no means proved that the sun is an incandescent body; and the degree of heat, which we experience from his rays, depends on their direction, and the nature and condition of the media through which they are transmitted.

Some interesting observations on the elementary and compound substances, which enter into the composition of animals, are prefaced by the important remark that, when we attempt to ascertain and discriminate these bodies by chemical analysis, the vital principle has ceased; and the products obtained may, therefore, be in many cases regarded 'as modifications of the elements of the substance, occasioned by the process employed, rather than the display of the number or nature of the ingredients as they existed previous to the analytical operations.'—Several species of *Julus*, when taken into the hand, emit such an odour of muriatic acid as to render it probable that they secrete it when irritated. In sponge, the iodine appears to be in combination with the albumen, or insoluble portion; whereas in the fuci it is contained in the gelatine, or that portion which is soluble in water:—a curious point of difference, and which may possibly result from the animal nature of the one substance and the vegetable nature of the other.

With regard to the enumeration and definitions of the parts or organs of animals, they are stated with the author's accustomed precision, and call for little in the way of commentary or criticism. One of the uses of the cellular membrane, which has been too frequently overlooked, is here duly noted; we mean, its occasional subserviency to the nourishment of the animal. 'The cells are the magazines, into which the superfluous nourishment is conveyed in the form of fat, to be again absorbed according to the wants of the body. Hence, the cells are nearly empty and collapsed, in animals scantily supplied with food.'—The nature and growth of hair are treated in a manner at once copious and ingenious: but, though it is a common notion that the hairs of the head bleed in *plica Polonica*, we believe that the idea is erroneous. The several stages in the growth of a feather, and its respective parts, are also analyzed with much felicity of detail. On the same subject, the late Dr. Paley has ably descanted in his *Natural Theology*.—Before he concludes his summary sketch of the osseous system, Dr. Fleming adverts to the claim preferred by Lamarck of having first suggested the obvious and commodious division of animals into *Vertebral* and *Invertebral*; and he observes that the distinction is as old as Aristotle, who employed the terms *Sanguineous* and *Exsanguineous*. He next takes a popular view of the muscular system, and of its various

various adaptations to the exigencies of different classes of animals. As an illustration of the contrivances of certain species to elude the war of elements, he mentions, on the authority of the Zetland fishermen, that the cod swallows stones, before a storm, to enable it to rest more securely at the bottom of the sea during the agitation of the waves; but *we* are not yet prepared to swallow this assertion: other fishermen having assured *us* that the cod preferably reskies in agitated waters, that the turbulence of the tempest extends to a very inconsiderable depth, and that the fish in question is perfectly capable, by its own muscular energies, of retiring into the quiet chambers of the deep. We can, however, easily conceive that, from its indiscriminate voracity, it may occasionally gulp down pebbles, especially when in pursuit of prey on the ground. — The notices of the nervous system, including the brain, spinal marrow, and nerves, rather refer to those circumstances which characterize races than to the peculiarities of species.

As introductory to a survey of the mind, our attention is directed to our sensations, the organs employed in their production, and the information which they convey respecting the properties of external objects. Besides the five external senses, whose operations are explained in the usual way, Dr. Fleming particularizes that of *heat*; which, strictly speaking, is distinct from that of touch, inasmuch as it may be exercised without the actual contact of any bodily organ with the object which excites the sensation. When, moreover, the heated body happens to be in contact with our own, we examine its conditions in reference to temperature without making any muscular efforts. This faculty is possessed by all animals; and, although the information which it furnishes is merely relative, and by no means so accurate as the indication of the thermometer, yet it is intimately connected with our comforts and our wants. The account of the organs of vision, with which we are here presented, is accurate and perspicuous, without being prolix; and it may be safely recommended to those who have never studied this curious subject anatomically. — Of two puzzling questions in the theory of vision, we have the ensuing solutions:

‘ When we look at the image of an object in the focus of a convex lens, or in that of the natural eye of a recently slaughtered bullock, prepared by removing the coats on its posterior side, and thrown upon white paper, we observe a picture formed, but in a reversed position, — the rays of light emanating from the upper part of the object forming the lower part of the image, and those from the right proceeding to the left. If the retina, in the living eye, be considered as occupying the place of the white paper in these

these experiments, it must follow, that the image of any object thus painted on the retina will be inverted. How comes it to pass, therefore, that we see every object in its natural upright position? All this difficulty originates in a misconception of the nature of the retina, and the impressions which it receives. There is no white screen in the eye, on which the image of an object can be painted. The retina is translucent, and the choroid behind it is black. The retina is not, therefore, acted upon by the reflected rays of the inverted image, as our eye is, when looking on the picture formed on the white paper, but by the direct rays from the object passing through its substance. We do not, therefore, see the *picture* of the object, but the object itself. And as we see the object, or any part of it, in the direction of those rays which proceed from them, and which produce the sensation, it follows, that the eye really sees objects in their natural and relative situation. —

‘Many animals can only see an object with one eye at a time. But in other animals, as man, both eyes may be directed at once to the same object, so as to produce an image in the retina of each eye. Still, however, we see objects simple; and this single vision has, by some, been ascribed to habit. It is, however, probable that vision is always single, when the images fall on precisely the corresponding points of both retinæ, and only double where this condition does not exist. Were this not the case, the compound eyes of insects would exhibit objects multiplied to an extent which no habit or experience during their limited existence could reduce. I have observed, that children, from the time that they are capable of fixing their eyes steadily on any object, direct both of them towards it; and this effort they do not seem capable of making until the iris has acquired the power of dilating and contracting.’

Without being biassed by the received systems of antient or modern philosophy, Dr. F. professes to have drawn his exposition of the mental phænomena from observing the workings of his own mind and the sentient objects around him: — a method which he recommends to others, in preference to yielding a hasty assent to the questionable authority of any school. On all occasions, it is laudable to cherish and maintain a manly and independent spirit of inquiry: but we trust that, on the present occasion, it is not meant to be insinuated that Locke, Reid, Priestley, or Stewart, in their endeavors to explain the properties of mind, were inattentive to the operations of their own. The examination, however, of the thinking and invisible part of our constitution, through the instrumentality of that part itself, must necessarily be liable to much difficulty and uncertainty. Hence, perhaps, the principal reason that, from the days of Aristotle to those of modern metaphysics, hardly any progress has been made in the investigation of this highly interesting but very mysterious subject;

subject; and hence it may be neither pusillanimous nor irrational to despair of ever arriving at any very satisfactory knowledge of the nature of the human soul, in the present system of things. Of its essence we certainly know nothing, any more than we do of the essence of matter; and, though the language of the author, who contends that *unity, indivisibility, immateriality, &c.*, when applied to mind, are merely expressions of our ignorance or presumption, may startle some well-meaning divines, it cannot be denied that our researches, in order to be useful, should be limited to phænomena alone. To note, discriminate, and arrange these phænomena, in the most comprehensive and perspicuous manner, should satisfy the ambition of the most aspiring pneumatologist.

The main result of Dr. Fleming's speculations is that all the powers, faculties, or attributes, as he terms them, of the mind, may be resolved into the general division of *Intellectual* and *Instinctive*; including under the latter the *active* powers of other authors, or the appetites, desires, and passions. This alteration in the nomenclature is, perhaps, as much an expression of our ignorance as any of the former to which he alludes. Under the intellectual department, are comprized attention, memory, imagination, and our ideas of reflection; some of the most remarkable of which refer to personality, time, power, truth, duty, and Deity. Abstraction is avowedly cancelled as being the combined operation of attention and memory: but the generalizing process seems to be distinct from both. Among examples of *delusive* analogy, it is, perhaps, scarcely fair to quote the population of suns and planets; for the idea proceeds on the supposition, that the structures and forms of organization are adapted to the circumstances of each world; and on the legitimate inference that a Being of perfect benevolence, who has ordained that even the wastes of land and ocean should teem with life, in our own abode, would not abandon countless myriads of immense masses of matter to the dreary silence and solitude of space, selecting only a single speck for the display of life and sensation. To descend, however, to less exalted themes, it may be proper to remark that the Doctor's exhibition of the mental faculties derives both novelty and interest from occasional references to the existence of analogous qualities in some species of the lower animals, a branch of pneumatology which has been hitherto treated too much in the style of abstract speculation, or of pre-conceived theory: whereas this author's extensive reading and observation have enabled him to illustrate his positions by particular cases. The appetites enumerated are those of *food, rest, and procreation*; the desires, those of *warmth, clothing, place,*

place, curiosity, society, imitation, approbation, power, and life; and the affections have been divided, according to their object, into the *benevolent* and the *malevolent*: the former comprehending the *parental*, the *filial*, and the *social*; while the latter, according to the present writer, are resolvable into some of the principles before explained.

On the communication of feelings between animals of the same species, or language, as far as its natural history is concerned, Dr. F.'s discussion is written with ability, and calls for no particular remark: but it is immediately followed, without any apparent connection, by considerations on *restraint*, and thoughts on *free agency*. This section, and the next, on the *Difference between Reason and Instinct*, and on *Man's Superiority over the Brutes*, are misnumbered, and also indicate some chasm in the catenation of topics: but the questions are treated with deliberation; and a fair comparison is instituted between the degrees of intellectual and instinctive faculties possessed by man and the inferior animals. In the course of his illustrations, the author takes occasion to impugn the sentiment of Mr. Stewart; who maintains that animals are incapable of looking forwards to consequences, or of comparing together the different gratifications of which they are susceptible. Among congregating animals, as apes and geese, it is well known that a sentinel is appointed to give warning of danger, when the rest are feeding.

' The sentinel, in this case, may look forward to be released from duty; but, in the mean time, he must feel the cravings of an empty stomach, and witness his acquaintances enjoying their repast. In all this he yields not to present impulses, but restrains his appetite for food, in order to comply with the arrangements of the social affection. In the case of animals which have escaped from a snare, and which refuse to be again enticed, there is a still more decided example of self-denial. The bait still allures; but the temptation is overcome through the sense of danger.

' As it is in man, when civilized, that we meet with the most unequivocal proofs of controul exercised over the instinctive powers, so, among domesticated animals, we may expect to find its existence most distinctly exhibited. We have seen a dog enter a larder, even when hungry, and smell at the cold meat and bread, without presuming to touch them. That he had an inclination to eat, could not be doubted; but he had acquired the power of controlling it. The same animal exhibits, in many cases, great sagacity in the exercise of his controul over his feelings. Thus, if you conduct an experienced spaniel to a place from whence he has seen a covey of partridges spring, he will pass on, indifferent to the scent which they have left behind them; but, if he did not observe their flight, his actions are widely different; "he treads with caution, and he points with fear." But it is needless to multiply

multiply examples: for all our domesticated animals exhibit the power of restraining their instincts; and the extent of this power is in the ratio of their obedience. We shall not here inquire into the motives which regulate the obedience, knowing that the moralist is aware that compliance with the laws of society, in regard to man, is often disagreeable, and even forced.

"There is another," (says the same philosopher, *Outlines*, p. 112.) "and very important respect, in which the nature of man differs from that of the brutes. He is able to avail himself of his past experience, in avoiding those enjoyments which he knows will be succeeded by suffering; and in submitting to lesser evils, which he knows are to be instrumental in procuring him a greater accession of good. He is able, in a word, to form the general notion of happiness, and to deliberate about the most effectual means of attaining it." We are compelled, however reluctantly, again to differ from this celebrated moralist, and to advance the opinion that the brutes do controul their instinctive powers under the guidance of experience; avoid enjoyments which are succeeded by sufferings; and submit to lesser evils, to avoid greater ones. We by no means venture to state, that the lower animals are *always* so prudent, and we presume that none will contend for the universality of such discretion in the human species. But that they are guided in their attempts to avoid evils and secure happiness, by the experience of the past, cannot admit of a doubt. A horse will submit to the lesser evil of mending his pace, rather than to the greater evil of being spurred. Dogs will often submit to the evil of continuing for a time in a constrained position, with a piece of bread upon their nose, until the signal of taking it be given, and exhibit unequivocal symptoms of satisfaction at obtaining happiness at so easy a rate. A goldfinch in confinement will submit to the evil of drawing up a small bucket by its chain, for the sake of the enjoyment of a draught of the water which it contains. Those who are conversant with the history of animals, must be acquainted with many other proofs of a similar kind.

It follows likewise from the author's premises, that Lamarck's grand division of *apathic* or *unfeeling* animals is quite gratuitous; because sensation may be predicated of all animals, without exception. The alleged distinction of *sensible* and *intelligent* is scarcely less arbitrary.

'Among his *sensible* animals, the sense of hearing, taste, smell, and touch, are well known to exist; and if an animal derives ideas from all these sources, is it conceivable that each class shall be preserved distinct, and no combination take place where the ingredients are already in contact? When a bee departs from its hive to collect food at the place where, on the preceding day, it obtained a bountiful repast, it is obvious that both the distance and direction must previously be contemplated, intimating the existence of complex ideas both of time and space. But it is not our intention to occupy the time of the reader in the refutation of

of the theoretical opinions of an author, who, in his delineation of the mental powers of animals, substitutes conjectures for facts, and speculation for philosophical induction. Fortunately for his reputation, he possesses much real merit as a systematical naturalist;

With respect to the arrangement of the valuable materials of this volume, we could have wished that the survey of the mental functions had been reserved for the close, and not interjected among reviews of a merely physical complexion: at least, when we have been holding converse with reason and the affections, we feel less inclined to consort with the structure and workings of the *digestive system*. This latter part of the subject, however, especially as far as it relates to animals of the higher orders, is unfolded in a masterly manner.

The circulating system and the urinary functions next pass in review; and an interesting chapter is devoted to the secretion of light, electricity, and color, in the animal frame. — The first volume concludes with an exposition of the most important facts that have been hitherto ascertained relative to the reproductive system; comprizing some judicious remarks on the anomaly of hybridism, which seems to originate in confinement and habits of domestication; and the extent of which is immediately checked by the infertility of the produce.

Volume II. consists of four parts; the first treating of the condition of animals, with reference to their duration, distribution, and economical uses; the second, of the methods of investigation employed to ascertain their nature and actions; the third, of the rules of nomenclature; while the last, and most extended, exhibits a nomenclature of the animal kingdom. Under the first of these heads, the circumstances of age and disease are dispatched in a somewhat cursory manner; and we could have tolerated a more ample discussion of the objection to the goodness of the Deity, that has been grounded on the mutual hostility of various races of animals: but the statements relative to hybernation and emigration are more detailed, and bespeak a familiar acquaintance with those remarkable phenomena in the animal economy. The train of reasoning, suggested by the organic remains scattered over the world, is plausible, ingenious, and in some respects (we believe) original: but it proceeds on the supposition of the creation of different races at different periods of the earth's existence; and, when taken in connection with other parts of the work, it involves the incongruity of the relics in question having belonged at once to recent and to extinct families. That they do in fact belong to both, we do not deny: but such an admission militates against the author's previous assertions; while his views do not account for the tropical aspect

aspect of the impressions of ferns, reeds, palms, &c., which abound in our coal-formations; and the prototypes of which probably flourished long before the intimation of quadrupeds in the alluvial districts. As we are led, however, to expect a more enlarged illustration of the writer's sentiments on these topics in a separate treatise, we shall waive their farther consideration at present.

Dr. F.'s directions relative to the examination and drawing of natural objects, the proper management of the microscope, the dissection, preparation, and preservation of specimens, &c., are well intitled to the attention of the practical zoologist. The following precautions, though simple and obvious, are too frequently neglected.

The greatest inconvenience that attends the use of objects preserved in alcohol arises from the evaporation of the spirits, and the risk of having the specimen destroyed by putrefaction before the change is observed. When the glass is closed by cork merely, the evaporation sometimes takes place very rapidly, by its capillary attraction, and this effect is sometimes accelerated by a thread from the object passing through the mouth of the vessel along with the cork. The evaporation of the spirit may be retarded by giving it a thin covering of fixed oil; or, it may be altogether prevented, by covering the mouth of the vessel with two or three folds of bladder bound round the edges tightly with pack-thread. If the layers of bladder are well coated with mucilage of gum-arabic, glue, or the white of an egg, the utmost security will be obtained. If a piece of tin-foil be coated on the under-side with glue, and then tied closely over the mouth of the vessel, and again coated with glue on the outside, and a slip of bladder tied closely over it, every risk may be avoided. The surface of the bladder may now be coated with coloured varnish, to improve the appearance of the preparation. The advantage attending a covering of glue or mucilage, over the common varnish frequently used, arises from their insolubility in alcohol. Objects preserved in alcohol may be taken out for the purpose of examining their structure, after carefully macerating them in water.

To the author's general canons of classification, most rational naturalists will probably be disposed to subscribe; and their exemplification, which occupies many pages, manifests both elaborate reflection and a philosophical spirit of arrangement. Setting out with the great and important division of animals into *Vertebral* and *Invertebral*, he includes under the former those with warm blood, viz. quadrupeds and birds; and those with cold blood, viz. reptiles and fishes. The quadrupeds comprize the *Mammalia* and *Monotremata*; the former including the *Placentaria* and *Marsupialia*, and the latter, the family of *Echidna*. Under *Placentaria*, by far the most numerous

most category of the class, are ranged *Palata*, *Ungiculata*, *Ungulata*, and *Apoda*, with inferior sections; and under *Marsupialia*, the Opossums, Kangaroos, &c. The Birds are divided into *Fisipedes*, or *Terrestrial*, viz. *Gallinaceous*, *Columbines*, *Accipitrine*, *Passerine*, and *Waders*, and into *Palmipedes*, or *Aquatic*, with the hind-toe either united with or separated from the fore-toe. The Reptiles constitute three orders, designed *Chelonea*, *Sauria*, and *Batrachia*, the first comprehending the Tortoise tribes; the second, the Lizards and Serpents; and the third, Frogs and Toads. The general division of the Fishes is into *Cartilaginous* and *Ossaceous*, and the sub-divisions are determined by the structure of the branchiæ, or other permanent characters. — The main divisions of the invertebral animals are *Gangliata*, *Annilosa*, and *Radiata*; subordinate to which are the *Mollusca*, with their respective classes and orders; — the *Crustacea*, with their orders and sections; — and the *Insects*, distributed into eleven orders, — the *Myriapoda*, *Cirrihipedes*, *Annelides*, *Entozoa*, *Echinodermata*, *Acalepha*, *Zoophyta*, and *Infusoria*.

From this intimation of some of its leading titles, our zoological readers may comprehend the outlines of Dr. Fleming's plan of arrangement: but the merits of the details can only be appreciated by having recourse to the original. Where the range of objects is so amazingly extensive and multifarious, it cannot be expected that any mode of distribution, proposed by a single individual, should be free from defect: but, when we consider the present complicated state of natural science, we owe it to Dr. Fleming to state, that the mode of arrangement which he offers to the public is not less philosophical than any of those that have recently issued from the French or the German school. His style of grouping considerably resembles that of Cuvier, but is more strictly methodical, and contains occasional references to such species as are indigenous to this country. His exposition of the serpent-tribes, and of the class of fishes, in particular, is luminous and comprehensive. Like most similar attempts at systematical classification, the present involves divisions within one another, to which it is difficult to assign appropriate abstract designations; and general or particular divisions are frequently set forth without any corresponding titles, while *class*, *order*, &c., are employed with a latitude of interpretation. All this, however, should in fairness be ascribed to the poverty of language, which is incompetent to supply a number of terms adequate to the orderly partitions of the great system of living beings.

The analytical table prefixed to these volumes will afford a more consecutive view of the nature and distribution of their contents than our limited space will permit us to exhibit. The impression which the perusal of them has left on our minds is so highly creditable to the author's taste, sagacity, and professional knowledge, that we have much satisfaction in learning that a synopsis of the British Fauna, by the same hand, is already in considerable forwardness of publication. We must not, however, be so ungallant as to dismiss the present work without making mention of five illustrative plates, of commendable accuracy and neatness, engraved from drawings by Mrs. Fleming. — Several clerical errors may be overlooked on account of the author's remoteness from the press; but the same apology will scarcely be sustained for occasional breaches of the peace between noun and verb. *Verbum sapienti.*

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR OCTOBER, 1823.

NOVELS.

Art. 12. *The King of the Peak*; a Romance. By the Author of "The Cavalier," &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

Whatever may be our chance of living to witness a radical reform in Parliament, we have been allowed to see something like a radical reform in our circulating libraries. We well remember the time; for it is not far distant, when a novel like '*The King of the Peak*' would have appeared as a star of first-rate magnitude in the firmament of fiction, at which we should have pointed our critical telescopes with considerable interest: but the last few years have exhibited such an inky-way of talent, that a novel-writer who, a quarter of a century ago, would have shone with lustre, now hides his head "*inter ignes minores.*" The centre of the new system, — the sun round which all the rest revolve, — is the great Scotch novelist; and it is to him principally that we must hold ourselves indebted for the production of the lesser lights. The writer of the present volumes may be very properly denominated one of this 'Jove's satellites,' for he is a decided and far from despicable attendant on that northern luminary. Mr. Lee Gibbons, as he has been pleased to call himself, is already known to the public as the author of "*The Cavalier*," and of "*Malpas; or, Le Poursuivant d'Amour*," the former of which manifested proofs of strong, though rather coarse talent: a character that may be applied in some degree to the volumes before us.

The

The scene, as the title imports, is laid in Derbyshire, and the time is the age of England's glory, — the reign of our resident queen. The hero, Edward Stanley, is of the rabid species, and would be described by the naturalist somewhat in these terms: *Mens atrox, furebundus, moribus pravis dedita; vultus pulcherrimus, oculi manacher splendentes; corpus elatius, prævalidum; gladium semper in manu, pugnas rixasque diligentissime exquirens; colore sanguinis maxime delectatur; armis equisque omnino se dedidit.* The fact is that the fierceness of Master Edward Stanley somewhat violates the modesty of nature. The two sisters, Margaret and Dorothy Vernon, (names which still linger around the mouldering ruins of Haddon Hall,) are exceedingly well drawn; we were not disappointed in the character of the King of the Peak, the valiant Sir George Vernon; and Sir Thomas Stanley, suitor of the Lady Margaret, and his father the much-honored Earl of Derby, are both good family-portraits. The plot turns, very principally, on a papistical conspiracy in which Edward Stanley is involved for the purpose of dethroning the queen; and to aid in the accomplishment of which he introduces into England two of his accomplices, a German colonel and a Jesuit, who both play very prominent parts, and do no discredit to the author's abilities. Then we have a Sir Simon Degge, (what will the lawyers say to this profanation of a name much honored in their vocation?) who is a species of compound between Master Shallow the Justice, and the classical Baron of Bradwardine; possessing the weak head and judicial authority of the former, with the learning but not the bravery of the latter. In some instances, however, where Mr. Lea Gibbons has attempted to tread closely in the steps of his great prototype, he has induced a comparison in which he must necessarily be a sufferer; and the character of Ashby, a wild and unhappy fanatic, too forcibly recalls the Macbrides and Burleys of the Scotch novelist. Still we should not be doing justice to Mr. Gibbons, if we did not add, that the interest of his novel is very well preserved; and that the plot is managed with a dexterity which might almost puzzle such old and many novel-readers as ourselves, who can generally anticipate all the turns and doublings with which the romance-writer seeks to deceive the young and inexperienced.

A few poetical pieces are interspersed, which show a practiced and indeed a skilful hand. We give the outlaw's serenade to his mistress, as a specimen:

Around me his arms twining,
 My true love said to me,
 When the summer sun is shining,
 I will come again to thee;
 When the summer sun is shining,
 And the birds are whistling free,
 Oh then my own dear true love,
 I'll come again to thee.

When the mist is rising high, love,
 And the lark sings o'er the lea,

I'll watch the dappled sky, love,
 And come again to thee;
 I'll rouse the moorcock early,
 And drive the pheasant from his tree;
 And then my own dear true love,
 I'll come again to thee;
 I love the deep-mouthed hound, love,
 With dewlap hanging low;
 I love with wind and stream, love,
 In merry bark to row;
 When I've chased the noble hart, love,
 And sail'd upon the sea,
 Oh! then my own dear true love,
 I'll come again to thee.

Art. 13. *Seventy-six.* By the Author of "Logan." 12mo. 3 Vols.
 Printed at Baltimore in America, and reprinted for Whittakers,
 London. 1823.

The remarks which we have made in the preceding article will, in part, apply to the volumes before us, for we have here no ordinary story, with every-day-characters and every-day-occurrences: but still it is of a different stamp from "The King of the Peak," and, proceeding from an American pen, does not come within the range of observations that refer to the productions of English presses. It is, however, like that work and the Scotch novels, historical, in its bearings, characters, and scenery; for it relates to the unfortunate contest between this country and the American colonies, which raged in the year *seventeen hundred and seventy-six*. We know not that any good purpose can be answered by recalling the events of that lamentable warfare, vividly and painfully, as they are here depicted to the eye, by one who certainly must have been an actor in them; and whose sentiments are so violently anti-Anglican, and anti-monarchical, that they by no means soften the effect produced by his delineations.

Still the interest excited by this tale, and the command over our feelings which the writer exerts, are very far from trifling and ordinary. His energies are somewhat rough, indeed, but they are powerful, like much of his vast continent, not cultivated but fertile, not polished but naturally impressive: his battle-pieces plunge us into the midst of them; and his hero is "every inch" a hero, not resembling too many of those who aspire to that denomination even in the Scotch novels, but an object of sympathizing and admiring contemplation.

We have spoken of the thoroughly American feelings of the writer, and a short sentence will exemplify them. Alluding to the likelihood of a particular instance of the republican forces being defeated, he says, 'What would have become of us, if we had been overtaken before we embarked? God only knows — but it is my belief that we should have been at this moment, with the gallant men of Ireland, the vassals of England, the hewers of wood and drawers of water, to a *patrician rabble* and a *profligate king*.'

Little

Little can the author know of the character of our late venerable monarch, under whose mistaken views of policy, the American war commenced, if he refers to him in the last words of this most blameable sentence.

Many of the leading military characters among the Americans are introduced by name, and Washington of course: several anecdotes of whom are related, which agree with the general representations of his conduct and behaviour; and numbers of the scenes brought before us are probably real. President Munroe appears, in one instance, bravely fighting as a mere lieutenant, and is said to be remarkable for a 'solemn undisturbed earnestness of countenance.'

The language of this narrative is often inelegant and peculiar, and is especially marked by the following ungrammatical form of expression: 'I never could pay a compliment in my life, when I wanted to' (do it).

Art. 14. *Tales of Old Mr. Jefferson, of Gray's Inn.* Collected by Young Mr. Jefferson, of Lyon's Inn. The First Series. 2 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

It would have been quite as well if young Mr. Jefferson had suffered Old Mr. Jefferson's Tales to remain in the supposed retired obscurity of Gray's Inn, amid other masses of venerable rubbish in which, without doubt, that respectable pile of buildings abounds. We do not refuse, however, to believe that these tales were the production of an old Mr. Jefferson; because the style indicates that they were written before the origin of the present improved taste in novel-writing; and so much of the weakness and awkwardness, which distinguish the common novels of the last century, appear in the volumes before us, that we fully acquit young Mr. Jefferson of the suspicion of being their author. Yet we cannot forbear to observe, also, that it would not have been incompatible with his duty, as editor, to have corrected the grammatical errors and bad construction into which his progenitor has occasionally fallen. Such phrases as 'directly he went,' for 'immediately after he had gone,' continually meet the eye, and many other instances of negligence might be pointed out; as when the hero of the second tale laments over the sod which covers 'the white young body' of the heroine. These are indeed trifling sins, and would be readily overlooked if counterbalanced by any substantial excellences: but unfortunately they are not.

Some portion of the second tale, 'Mandeville, or the Voyage,' is of a better character, and not without spirit and interest. The naval battles are very terrific indeed, and sufficiently appalling to us landmen; but much personal satire is evidently couched under the introduction of several names and several incidents, in which the ages of Queen Anne and King George III. are purposely confounded. Indeed the names of some naval officers and some ships are very little disguised, and we conceive that in several instances the aspersions are as little deserved.

Art. 15. *Isabel de Barsas; a Tradition of the Twelfth Century.*
3 Vols. 12mo. Baldwin and Co. 1822.

"What art thou that usurp'st this time of night,
Together with that fair and warlike form?"

SHAKESPEARE.

The title motto to this work is exceedingly appropriate, and will convey a very just and accurate idea of its contents, the marvellous being indisputably the staple article of the whole production. It is, for instance, marvellously perplexing, marvellously horrible, and (if not least in the account) marvellously absurd. Its very merits are of that nature which seem to arise rather out of wildness and extravagance, indulged by the writer without restraint, than from the serious dictates of good taste or judgment; in which requisites, even for a tale of the twelfth century, the work betrays a lamentable deficiency. To compensate for these faults, however, we have a plentiful supply of those supernatural ingredients which have been in such high request from the time of Boccaccio to that of Mrs. Radcliffe, but the reputation of which ought, ere this, to be somewhat on the wane. In fact, the real hero of the piece disappears very early in the first volume, assuming his more convenient alias of a ghost; which he maintains till called to the rescue of the heroine at the close of the third. This is both a novel and extraordinary resource for the romance-writer, when a little hampered with his leading characters, of which we were not before aware, but which we beg leave to suggest to the attention of the rest of the more supernatural romancers of the day.

The story embraces the feuds of two noble French families, De Montfort and De Barsas, (romantic names,) whose castles are very pleasantly situated, at least for fighting; which amusement, with the assistance of sundry "bows and daggers," a few homicides, some seduction, a little starvation, and a portion of solitary confinement, enables the writer to occupy three volumes of between three and four hundred pages each.

It must be admitted, however, that this production has at least the merit of perfect consistency throughout. Though always in extremes, the characters and the incidents are wholly of a piece; while the sentiments and language will not be found much to differ from the uniform extravagance of the whole story. These high quillies are occasionally relieved by a familiarity and bathos of style, which serve to vary the tediousness of the volumes. We meet with such language as 'you are so ways related to me;' and 'here's how you spoil all your young ladies by humoring them!' &c. &c. Some works amuse from their very contrast to every thing excellent, being at once a burlesque on good and the very best satire on bad writing. In this view, we have to thank the author for his portraits of the heroine Isabel, of her ghostly lover De Montfort, and especially of the Marquis de Morbieri; whose novel manner of recommending himself to the ladies whom he admired, by starving them to death in solitary con-

confession, is almost unparalleled in the annals of romance. The novel ends as such a novel ought to end, in a grand conflagration; from which we should be sorry to see arise a phoenix-form in the shape of a successor.

POLITICS.

Art. 16. *Letter to William Joseph Denison, Esq. M.P., on the Agricultural Distress, and on the Necessity of a Silver Standard.* By Gilbert Leing Meason, Esq. 8vo. pp. 47. 1s. 6d. Hard-
ing, 1873.

Our readers will obtain from the following paragraph an outline of Mr. Meason's opinions as to the causes and remedy of the distress which continues to press on the agriculturists.

The leading causes of our distress are, the transition from a profuse paper-circulation, to the preparation to meet a gold payment, on demand, of notes in circulation; the consequent alteration in the value of all money-contracts; an overwhelming supply at market of corn and cattle, arising in some degree from abundance, but principally from the very distresses of the landlords and tenants; the oppressive weight of taxes under the gold system; compared to the paper-circulation, by which the public loan-contracts were made; and, while the weight is thus doubled, the means of paying these taxes and money-contracts out of the agricultural industry of the nation are almost cut off by the price of that industry, viz. corn and cattle being below the expense of culture and breeding. Hence the necessity of a silver standard, like other nations in Europe, in order to avoid fluctuations in the circulating medium, and of a system of country bankers' circulation secured to all classes, by a deposit in the public funds, equivalent to the value of notes issued. To gain further relief, we must reduce taxes, by lessening the public expenditure on the army, the navy, the ordnance, and more particularly on our colonies; we must do away the sinking fund, until we have a real surplus revenue under a light taxation, when such surplus should be directly applied towards payment of the debt, without the machinery of an establishment and separate fund.

The topics here introduced have been often discussed in our pages, and in various publications. If, in such a country as Great Britain, observes Mr. M. in another place, exceeding all others in the amount of its manufactures and the extent of its interior commerce and circulating industry, the currency is reduced to one-third of what it was, without a corresponding diminution of the circulating industry and capital, surely the price of agricultural produce must decline; since, by diminishing the number of pieces of money or paper in circulation, the more valuable does the remainder become, when exchanged for the produce of land. True: the farmer gives twice as much corn in exchange for a pound note at par with gold, as he would have given for a pound note at 50 per cent. discount: but what then? The nominal price of his corn, indeed, is lowered 50 per cent., but its real value is the same, measured with other commodities;

because a single pound note *at par* will purchase as much of other commodities in the case supposed, as two pound notes at a discount of 50 per cent. would have purchased before. It has been clearly shewn that variations in the value of currency cannot affect the prices of corn, to a greater extent than that which is marked by the difference in value between paper and gold.

Mr. Meason says that 'the constant surplus at market of corn and cattle arises from the agricultural distress more than from over-production.' Want of ready money certainly drives landlords and tenants to market when they would otherwise have kept at home: they force prices down by their competition to sell; and the lower they so force them down, the more they must sell in order to make up a given sum of money. Thus their very necessities aggravate the evil which oppresses them. If Mr. Meason had left out the epithet 'constant,' we should not have objected to his position; but we must say that, if a 'constant surplus at market' does not indicate over-production, *with reference to the means of buyers*, we know not what does. Heavy taxation, by withdrawing those means, has an injurious effect on agriculture; and presses, perhaps, more heavily on it than on any other branch of industry; because the purchase of the products of agriculture constitutes a larger proportion of the outgoings of most individuals, than the products of any other branch of industry. The low price of corn and cattle may arise, and probably has arisen, from what is improperly termed "over-production;" that is, from great abundance of supply: but the distress of the agriculturist has not arisen from over-production: it has been caused by the cost of production having exceeded the marketable value of the articles produced. We have no hesitation in affirming that it is more advantageous to the farmer to grow a large crop and sell it at a low price, than to grow a small crop and sell it high. It is more profitable to a farmer, for example, to grow four quarters of wheat per acre and sell at sixty shillings per quarter, than to grow only three quarters per acre and sell at eighty shillings. The nominal return in money is indeed the same in both cases, viz. twelve pounds sterling per acre on his wheat-crop: but his outgoings are very different; for in the former case he has to pay his poor's rate, the labor employed on his farm, his wheel-wright, blacksmith, carpenter, bricklayer, and the manufactured articles of cloth, linen, leather, and other articles for his family-consumption, regulated, in a certain degree by the low price of wheat at sixty shillings per quarter; while in the latter case, his money-return being the same, he has to pay all these outgoings, regulated in the same degree by the high price of wheat at eighty shillings per quarter. We must add here, however, that Mr. Meason denies the position that the price of corn does regulate the wages of manufacturers; it certainly does not regulate them exclusively, but it always must materially affect them, co-operating with the ratio which exists between the supply of workmen and the demand for them. The wages of labor must always be sufficient to maintain a man. We shall be told, "No: a labourer does not get more from his employer than

than half of what is sufficient to maintain him, and he goes to the parish for the other half." Still, what he gets from the parish-purse is the wages of labor, though under a different and ignominious form: If a man *refuses* to labor, the parish is not bound to relieve him: it may send him to Bridewell, and *make* him labor to earn his subsistence. The wages of labor, then, in *some* shape, must always be sufficient to maintain a man; and they are, consequently, "in a certain degree," regulated by the price of subsistence.

The regular disappearance of gold coin from this country, as soon as it is thrown into circulation, induces Mr. Meason to recommend silver as the standard of currency, and to be made a legal tender, as it is in Holland, Germany, France, and Spain.

The apology for making gold the standard in Great Britain has been, that the average variation in the price of silver is greater than that of gold. But it is overlooked, that if we put down silver as a legal tender, as we did in 1774, except for 25s. and under, and make it by law only an inferior coin for change, we do away with a great measure, one of its uses; and accordingly it is in Britain only of use for plate, or as a mercantile commodity, hence subject to greater fluctuations than gold. Nor has it been considered, that this variation in price beyond that of gold would be in *com* counterbalanced by the weight and bulk of silver over an equal value of gold (fifteen to one), causing a considerable increase of expence in exporting silver coin.

In those countries in which silver is the standard currency, no exportation of the coin has taken place, so as to embarrass the circulating medium. And in such countries, paper-money, or *Agio Bank* paper, if properly secured, is sought after as a relief from the weight and bulk of the silver coin in large payments. Hence, a silver coinage, as a standard and legal tender, would give stability and support to the circulation of Bank of England notes.

If gold disappears from this country, it must go to some other where it bears a higher price. Whither does it go? The constant diminution of the gold coin, not of Great Britain alone but of Europe generally, when compared with the supply from America and the coast of Africa, cannot be explained by the wear of the coin or by its application to gilding and trinkets. Mr. Meason thinks that the eastern nations of the world have long absorbed, and will continue to absorb, the gold currency of Europe. Under the terrible despotism which prevails in those countries, ostensible wealth in individuals is a signal for confiscation, and perhaps for death. A great proportion of the profits of trade, therefore, is hoarded in the form of gold: the father often dares not trust even his own family with the sacred spot in which it is deposited, and under such rigid concealment, many of these hoards must be lost. A continual flow of gold coin to the eastern nations therefore takes place.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 17. *Don Juan*. Cantos IX, X, XI. 18mo. 1s. Hunt. 1829.

We

We have so often characterized this singular poem, that we need not make many *general* remarks on the several continuations of it, in which the noble writer so unusually proceeds against (we believe) the voice of the public, and seems resolved to persevere as long as his own inclination prompts him. — The ninth canto opens with a long *tirade* against the Duke of Wellington, and a few strokes at the late Marquis of Londonderry: neither of whom seems to have: "any business here," except that all ingredients are admitted into this *Olla podrida*. It then exhibits Don Juan's flattering reception at Petersburg, and indicates his instalment as personal favorite of the *philanthropical* Empress Catherine. The tenth, in the usual digressive style, continues that subject, makes the young Don a little indisposed, orders him on his travels for his health, invests him with the character of a Russian envoy to the British court, and lands him in England. The eleventh initiates him somewhat in the manners of this country; first by bringing him into contact with highway robbers on Shooter's Hill, next by presenting him at court, and then by leading him into the commencement of fashionable life in London: — more particulars of which are to be recorded in future. It may be hoped, however, that Lord B.'s present much more noble occupation, in assisting the Greeks during their arduous struggle, may cause Don Juan to experience a long repose.

We shall copy the adventure with the robbers:

- ' Don Juan had got out on Shooter's Hill;
Sun-set the time, the place the same declivity
Which looks along that vale of good and ill
Where London streets ferment in full activity;
Where every thing around was calm and still,
Except the creak of wheels, which on their pivot he
Heard, — and that bee-like, bubbling, busy hum
Of cities, that boils over with their scum: —
- ' I say, Don Juan, wrapt in contemplation,
Walked on behind his carriage, o'er the summit,
And lost in wonder of so great a nation,
Gave way to't, since he could not overcome it.
"And here," he cried, "is Freedom's chosen station;
Here peals the people's voice, nor can entomb it
Racks, prisons, inquisitions; resurrection
Awaits it, each new meeting or election.
- ' "Here are chaste wives, pure lives; here people pay
But what they please; and if that things be dear,
'Tis only that they love to throw away
Their cash, to show how much they have a-year.
Here laws are all inviolate; none lay
Traps for the traveller; every highway's clear:
Here —" he was interrupted by a knife,
With, — "Damn your eyes! your money or your life!" —
- ' These freeborn sounds proceeded from four pads
In ambush laid, who had perceived him loiter

Behind

Behind his carriage; and, like handy lads,
 Had seized the lucky hour to reconnoitre,
 In which the headless gentleman who gads
 Upon the road, unless he prove a fighter,
 May find himself within that isle of riches
 Exposed to lose his life as well as breeches.
 Juan, who did not understand a word
 Of English, save their shibboleth, "God damn!"
 And even that he had so rarely heard,
 He sometimes thought 'twas only their "Salut,"
 Or "God be with you!" — and 'tis not absurd
 To think so: for half English as I am
 (To my misfortune) never can I say
 I heard them wish "God with you," save that way; —
 Juan yet quickly understood their gesture,
 And being somewhat choleric and sudden,
 Drew forth a pocket pistol from his vesture,
 And fired it into one assailant's pudding —
 Who fell, as rolls an ox o'er in his pasture,
 And roared out, as he writhed his native mud in,
 Unto his nearest follower or henchman,
 "Oh Jack! I'm floor'd by that ere bloody Frenchman!"
 On which Jack and his train set off at speed,
 And Juan's suite, late scattered at a distance,
 Came up, all marvelling at such a deed,
 And offering, as usual, late assistance.
 Juan, who saw the Moon's late minion bleed,
 As if his veins would pour out his existence,
 Stood calling out for bandages and lint,
 And wished he had been less hasty with his flint.
 "Perhaps," thought he, "it is the country's wont
 To welcome foreigners in this way: now
 I recollect some innkeepers who don't
 Differ, except in robbing with a bow,
 In lieu of a bare blade and brazen front,
 But what is to be done? I can't allow
 The fellow to lie groaning on the road:
 So take him up; I'll help you with the load."
 But ere they could perform this pious duty,
 The dying man cried, "Hold! I've got my gruel!
 Oh! for a glass of *max*! We've missed our booty;
 Let me die where I am!" And as the fuel
 Of life shrunk in his heart, and thick and sooty
 The drops fell from his death-wound, and he drew ill
 His breath, — he from his swelling throat untied
 A kerchief, crying "Give Sal that!" — and died.
 The cravat stained with bloody drops fell down
 Before Don Juan's feet: he could not tell
 Exactly why it was before him thrown,
 Nor what the meaning of the man's farewell.

Poor Tom was once a kiddy upon town
 A thorough varmint, and a *real* swell,
 Full flash, all fancy, until fairly diddled,
 His pockets first and then his body riddled.

Don Juan, having done the best he could
 In all the circumstances of the case,
 As soon as "Crownor's quest" allowed, pursued
 His travels to the capital apace; —
 Esteeming it a little hard he should
 In twelve hours' time, and very little space,
 Have been obliged to slay a freeborn native
 In self-defence: this made him meditative.

He from the world had cut off a great man,
 Who in his time had made heroic bustle.
 Who in a row like Tom could lead the van,
 Boose in the ken, or at the spellken hustle?
 Who queer a flat? Who (spite of Bow-street's ban)
 On the high toby-spice so flash the muzzle?
 Who on a lark, with black-eyed Sal (his blowing)
 So prime, so swell, so nutty, and so knowing?

It is to be feared that some readers will feel a wish that Don Juan had experienced the fate of the footpad.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 18. *Memoirs of the Baron de Kolli*, relative to his Secret Mission in 1810, for liberating Ferdinand VII., King of Spain; from Captivity at Valençay. Written by Himself. To which are added, *Memoirs of the Queen of Etruria*, written by Herself. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Treuttel and Co. 1823.

The Baron de Kolli here jumps into full grown existence, and armed *cap-à-pied*, like Minerva from the head of Jupiter; telling us not whence he comes or who he is, but amply shewing us what he is, viz. the devoted servant of all *legitimates*, and the particular champion of the "beloved Ferdinand." We admire his courage, address, and fortitude, but he must excuse us if we do not approve his taste. The acts of that beloved monarch have sufficiently and indisputably proclaimed his qualities: but, if we had never heard of him, a sight of his portrait, prefixed to this volume, would have convincingly shewn us the *half and half* character which the folly and the madness of those acts have established. — The author's adventures, however, are amusing and interesting: well told; and exciting anxiety for his fate, even where no participation in his object and feelings can lead the reader into sympathy. Their relation is also curious, as supplying some documents for the political history of the times; and in this country especially, as manifesting the part taken by our government in the affair to which they relate: for Baron K. fully proves his employment by the British ministers, and prints various official papers which authenticate his statements. We shall transcribe the letter written by our late King himself to Ferdinand, which forms one of these official documents.

Letter

Letter from King George III. to King Ferdinand VII. at Valerçay.

"Sir and Brother, — It is long since I have sought an opportunity of transmitting to your Majesty a letter signed by my own hand, to convey to you the sentiments of lively interest, and profound sorrow which I have never ceased feeling since your Majesty has been taken from your kingdom, and from your good and faithful subjects. Notwithstanding the violence and cruelties with which the usurper of the throne of Spain has loaded the Spanish nation, it must be a great consolation to your Majesty to know, that your people continue steadfast in their loyalty and attachment to the person of their legitimate king, and that Spain is making constant efforts to maintain your Majesty's rights, and to restore the independence of the monarchy. The resources of my kingdom, my fleets, and my armies, do not cease to aid your Majesty's subjects in this great cause, and my ally, the Prince Regent of Portugal, has also contributed to it, with all the zeal and constancy of a faithful friend.

"There is nothing wanting to the good subjects of your Majesty, and to your allies, but the presence of your Majesty in Spain, where it cannot but inspire fresh energy. Therefore, with all the frankness of the friendship and alliance by which I am bound to your Majesty's interests, I beseech you to reflect on the wisest and most effectual means of tearing yourself from the indignities to which you are subjected, and of showing yourself in the midst of a people who are actuated by a universal feeling for the happiness and glory of your Majesty.

"I add to this letter, a copy of the letter of credence, which my minister in Spain * will present to the central junta, which governs in the name and by the authority of your Majesty.

"I request your Majesty not to doubt of my sincere friendship; being with the most inviolable attachment,

"Sir and Brother, Your Majesty's good Brother,
(Signed). "GEORGE REX.

"Queen's House, London, Jan. 31. 1810."

Several details of extraordinary imprisonments, sufferings, and escapes, have at times been laid before the public, to which the present volume forms a not unworthy addition. We do not see why the *Memoirs of the Queen of Etruria* were tacked to it.

Art. 19. *Report on the present State of the Greek Confederation, and on its Claims to the Support of the Christian World.* Read to the Greek Committee, 13th September, 1825. By Edward Blaquiére, Esq. 8vo. Pamphlet. Whittakers.

We have often introduced Mr. Blaquiére to our readers, and we have now to bring him before them as the feeling and warm advocate of the struggling Greeks; whose sacred cause, we regret to say, has excited comparatively such little and such lukewarm

* Sir Henry Wellesley, brother of the Marquis.

interest

interest among the people of this kingdom, where it ought to be regarded with the most kindling enthusiasm and the most active sympathy. — A Greek individual having come to England in January last, to ascertain the state of the public mind towards his compatriots, it was deemed advisable by their friends here, who form "the Greek Committee," to accept Mr. Blaquiere's spontaneous offer of accompanying that person (M. Durlottis) back to the Morea, as a provisional agent from this country, and to communicate the result of his observations and inquiries. These gentlemen accordingly left London in March, but did not reach the shores of the Morea till the commencement of May. On his return, Mr. B. made the present Report to the Committee.

It cannot but be observed that this paper is composed rather of general remarks, and representations on the nature of the Grecian contest, than of particular facts and details of existing circumstances; but the former have the merit of being well founded, of being unfortunately but too much wanted, and of being expressed in flowing and animated language; and they are by no means unsupported by the latter interesting adjuncts. — After an account of the measures adopted by the provisional government at a general congress held at Astros, Mr. B. adverts to the origin of the Greek resistance to their ruthless tyrants, and to the excesses in turn committed by them against these Turkish oppressors. He states most positively that there was not the smallest connection, either directly or indirectly, between the rising in Greece and passing events in the rest of Europe; and as to the excesses attributed to the Greek soldiery, he observes:

"It would appear that the number of able and eloquent writers who have advocated the cause of Greece, have brought forward such facts and arguments as must satisfy every impartial observer that these excesses, like every other subject calculated to prejudice the cause, have been most wantonly exaggerated. The whole course of my own inquiries enables me to confirm the fact; and in repeating that the severities exercised on the enemy were inevitable and unavoidable, I shall farther add, as my most firm conviction, that when all the concomitant circumstances which led to the excesses at Tripolizza are made known, they will appear mild, when compared to those committed by the best disciplined and most civilized troops of Europe in many instances during the last fifty years."

The modern Greeks having been reproached with a want of mental energy and improvement, it is particularly interesting to read the following paragraph:

"As there is no ambition so deeply rooted in the Greek character as the desire of instruction, no wonder that it should predominate, now that there is a prospect of being able to realize the wishes on this subject which so universally pervade the nation. Nothing but a determination to encourage this most laudable disposition could have induced the provisional government to devote a part of its attention and circumscribed funds to the establishment of Lancasterian schools, while the enemy was still so near, and the means of subsist-

subsistence often wanted for the troops. The interest attached to this important subject by your Committee will not be a little heightened, when informed that the seat of government had not been established at Tripolizza more than three weeks, when I had the satisfaction of witnessing one of the largest mosques in the city converted into a school on Lancaster's principle, at which above seventy children, of both sexes, under the age of ten years, were receiving instruction when I quitted the Morea. Prince Maurocordato had already established two, almost in sight of the Infidel forces, at Missolonghi and Gastouni, previously to his attending the deliberations at Astros.

Mr. B. then strongly urges the necessity of reiterating the warmest appeals to all classes of Britons to give support to this heroic, but suffering people, and proceeds to give some farther particulars of their present situation; with intimations of those articles of the first necessity in warfare with which it would be most important to supply them.

It becomes my duty to apprise your Committee, that although the successes which are announced almost daily, prove that the courage and resolution of the Hellenists remain undiminished, and that the neglect and indifference of their Christian brethren would seem only to stimulate them to still greater efforts; yet are they conducting the war under the greatest disadvantages; so much, indeed, that I can safely assure your Committee there are, while I write, thousands of those driven from their homes, and whose wives and children were carried into slavery, either seeking a refuge from the knife of the Infidel among the crags of Olympus, Macrinoro, and Volos; or, if armed, bravely opposing the enemy in the passes of Thermopylae and Corinth, without bread to eat, or raiment to cover them! Need I say more to rouse the slumbering spirit of benevolence and Christian charity? I will only add, that a comparatively small portion of the funds which have been subscribed in this philanthropic country, to disseminate the blessings of Christianity beyond the seas, would, if promptly applied to the wants of the struggling Greeks, perhaps save a whole nation of Christians from perishing!

Great as have been the successes of these Christian warriors against the barbarian Infidels, it is surprizing to learn the difficulties under which any warlike operations have been, and still are, carried on. Mr. Blaquiere informs the Committee that

The wants and privations of the Greek army are of a nature the most discouraging. When I state that there is not more than a third of the number, thus employed in saving a whole people from extermination, supplied with sufficient clothing to shelter them from the inclemencies of a mountain-warfare; that they often march forty miles a day, almost invariably sleep in the open air, and frequently pass two or three days without any other food than the herbs of the field, — the astonishment of the Committee at the bravery and perseverance of the Greek soldiery will not, I am sure, be diminished.

Though the number of horses taken from the Turks, and now in the Morea, is sufficient to mount from five to eight thousand cavalry,

cavalry, it will be impossible for the government to avail itself of this species of force until provided with funds.

‘ From the above facts, I need hardly add, that the Greek army receives no pay whatever. The general mode adopted by the chiefs is to advance a small sum to each soldier previous to entering the field; with this he provides himself with bread, tobacco, and whatever other necessities he may require, as far as the supply will go; for it very seldom exceeds two Spanish dollars.’

The case is the same with the navy, which has borne so brilliant a part in the contest; and it is astonishing to be told that ‘ there have not been less than a hundred ships and vessels of various sizes employed at the expence of about thirty ship-owners, ever since the commencement of the struggle; and the number has on more than one occasion extended to one hundred and eighty.—

‘ The Greek seamen, who amount to about 20,000 of the most expert in Europe, receive no regular pay; all they require for their services is the means of subsistence for their families.’

We urgently recommend this pamphlet to public attention, and await with anxiety Mr. B.’s announced work on the Greek Revolution, founded on information obtained by him during his late visit to the scenes of its events.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A letter has reached us from Mr. Barker, respecting our account of his pamphlet addressed to Mr. Hughes on the present struggle of the Greeks, in our last Number. — We have not an immediate opportunity of communicating with the writer of that article: but it may suffice to state, that Mr. Barker wishes our representation of that pamphlet being a mere complement to be somewhat modified; for, he says, ‘ if all the quotations were removed, the quantity of original matter would not be very inconsiderable.’ In that closely printed and extensive tract, it is not very easy for us to calculate the precise amount of Mr. B.’s own contributions; but, as his knowledge of it must be the most intimate, we are willing to admit his present statement: more especially as he observes, and we are truly glad to learn, that his ‘ book has been found very serviceable to the Greek cause.’ — Mr. B. has favored us with the copy of a letter to him from ‘ an enlightened and liberal American,’ commending his publication, and sharing his laudable sentiments on the subject of the Greeks: but we have not room, nor would it be a part of our duty, to print it, as he seems to desire.

Philo is informed that we gave an account of Marina’s “ Theory of the Cortes ” in our last Appendix, published with the Number for September. He will find, from that article, that the work has all the interest and the merit which he has heard ascribed to it.

W. A. C. cannot, surely, be serious. If he be, we are serious in answering him in the negative.



THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For NOVEMBER, 1823.

ART. I. *A Comment on the Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri.*
By ———. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 499. 18s. Boards. Printed
in Italy, from the Types of Didot, for Murray, London. 1822.

WE are here invited to engage in a task of no common magnitude; the “vista of years,” — of commentary on commentary, — seems to open to our view; and we do not believe that the voluminous annals of the period will afford an instance of greater ambition and intrepidity of mind than that which has here been evinced by Mr. Taaffe, who is reported to be the projector of this new series of Herculean labors: which would occupy about *twelve* huge tomes, if we may judge by the portion that has been already achieved. We say *projector*, because, like other projects with the most soaring pretensions, such liberal promises made by authors to futurity are seldom fulfilled; though we are not disposed to rank Mr. T. with that writer who, in his intended history of the Portuguese monarchy, commenced at the beginning of the world, and died before he brought it down to the period at which he ought to have set out. Such a comparison, indeed, would be manifestly unjust, since the author of the bulky volume before us has travelled through at least some *twentieth* portion of *the Divine Comedy*; which he will by no means permit us to intitle (with Mr. Cary) by the name of *Vision*, though we doubt whether the Florentine himself would have “picked a hole” in Mr. Cary’s reputation on that account. Such a circumstance will, at once, give the reader an idea of the somewhat *precise* views that are entertained by this author respecting the duty of a commentator; and it is this *precision*, carried beyond the usual bounds of the *precisest* hypercritic, which forms the leading feature of his whole work. His distinctions and differences from all preceding interpretations, more especially from those of Mr. C., in the minutest points, really sometimes do not in the least alter the meaning, and would be termed in parliamentary language both “frivolous and vexatious;” while, as a singular contradiction to his own system, his version of some of the passages of the poem,

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with which he has favored us, is less severe, chastened, and correct, than the corresponding translations by the writer whom he attacks.

Without farther preface, we shall adduce some instances of these our assertions, being aware that we must travel a little more rapidly over the present pages than Mr. T. has gone over those of Dante. We shall afterward endeavor to render that justice to the author's critical remarks which we think they really deserve; and we shall not be so unduly severe as to estimate them by the merit of his poetical translations, or by the language in which they are delivered, his long residence abroad having apparently somewhat effaced from his recollection both the poetry and the prose of his native country. We shall thus reserve for ourselves the pleasure of our commendations till the close: for it is but fair to promise, before we make our onslaught on the outworks of an unwieldy commentator, that we are quite ready to enter into conditions and grant *quarter* rather than get into the *mils* of a downright controversy: provided only that the commentator be content to cede certain untenable grounds and positions, which he has assumed (as we shall show) without sufficient authority from the instructions given in the text of the great Florentine master. To attain this object, it will be desirable, where we can, to give the author's own interpretation of certain passages, and to collate them with that of others, rather than merely to canvass his objections to some of his predecessors, among whom Mr. Cary holds a conspicuous place. — We begin with an instance in the author's version of Dante's celebrated reproach of Pope Boniface and his companions in impiety, the Italian with the two translations being found to run thus:

" *Che la vostra avarizia il mondo attrista,
Calcando i buoni, e sollevando i pravi.
Di voi pastor s'accorse 'l Vangelista,
Quando colei, che siede sopra l'acque,
Puttaneggiar co' regi a lui fu vista.*"

Canto xix. v. 105-110.

— "Your avarice
O'ercasts the world with mourning, under foot
Treading the good, and raising bad men up!
Of shepherds like to you, the Evangelist
Was ware, when her who sits upon the waves
With kings in filthy whoredom he beheld." Cary, *ib.*

"Oh, loathing breeds
Your lust of lucre, pastors, knaves!
Whom did the scribe of *Paradise* view

In her, the harlot *threw* on waxes . . .
And whoring with the kings of earth, but you . . .
Comment, on Dante, p. 38.

Not to dwell on their respective poetical beauty, the italics in the last of these passages will shew how far the translator has departed from the expression as well as the spirit of the original: while the poetic simplicity of Mr. Cary's translation retains both in an eminent degree. It is in truth far more accurate, while that of Mr. T. is much more loose and paraphrased. Indeed we have been in some doubt whether we had turned to the real passage; for Mr. C.'s beautiful and literal translation of

Calcando i buoni, e sollevando i pravi.
or *Treading the good, and raising bad men up.*

is curtailed at once into the epithet of *knaves*: — *threw* is given instead of *sets*; — 'loathing breeds your lust of lucre' instead of simple avarice; — and 'the scribe of Palmes,' for Evangelist: all so many paraphrases, and departures from the simplicity and expression of the original. We have a still more extraordinary instance, which will not require any commentary, in the following:

Perestevansi incontro. Inferno, canto vii. v. 28.
or *Then smote together.* CARY.

While breasts strike breasts with pangs condigna. Comment, on

The whole passage reads so singularly wild and whimsical, that we must give it entire, if it be merely for its contrast to the rendering of Mr. Cary; referring our readers to the original as above.

Spinning their weights around, around,
While breasts strike breasts with pangs condigna.
Ho! charge, hurra, jolt, bound, rebound!
Ho! foe to foe, and line to line!
Each cursing each, and madly crying
"Why closed thy palm?" "Why open thine?"
Then thwart the sobby cavern flying
Still, still they bandy railing, raging,
That savage taunt, that fierce replying
And face about and form — engaging
For ever in that rude, unvaried tilt.

Comment, on Dante, p. 450.

From one side and the other, with loud voice,
Both rolled on weights, by main force of their breasts,
Then smote together, and each one forthwith
Rolled them back voluble, turning again.

Exclaiming these, "Why holdest thou so fast?"
 Those answering, "And why castest thou away?"
 So still repeating their despicable song,
 They to the opposite point on either hand
 Traversed the horrid circle: then arrived,
 Both turned them round, and through the middle space
 Conflicting met again." CARY, canto vii. v. 26.

The commentator here raises an objection to Mr. Cary's translation of "*Che burlì*," (why castest thou away?) not on account of its fidelity, which is complete, but on the score of not giving the imagery or poetry of the text. We do not see that "why castest thou away" is not as poetical as the "*burlì*" of the original, or the 'why closed thy palm? why open thine?' of Mr. Taaffe himself. Mr. Cary's superior fidelity and beauty, in the remaining portion of the version, must be too apparent to every reader to require the minute commentary of which we have so rare an example before us, and which we adopted in the first specimen. Such specimens, however, are so sparingly introduced into the work, that we shall find some difficulty in elucidating our present object: though we are given to understand that the author had proceeded some way with his translation in *terze rime*, and had even commenced the printing of it, when he was induced to abandon it. Had he, indeed, entirely suppressed it, and even the mention of it, with the accompanying fragments which we have taken the pains of collecting, he would better have consulted his reputation as a poet, if not as a commentator: but since he has ventured even thus far into the arena, he must abide the trial as a translator, though we would not be so unjust as to infer that he has thus altogether committed his character as a critic and a man of taste and learning. To write, and to judge of the writings of others, are in a great degree distinct faculties. Yet the author, by thus exhibiting his poetical deficiencies, has more than rendered himself liable, regarding his attack on Mr. Cary, to the application of a very homely but a very just proverb, "The faults of our neighbours with freedom we blame, But we tax not ourselves, though we practise the same; and we might truly add that he swells the account of those which he so lavishly attributes to the performance of his predecessor.

Our next specimen is from a passage in the "*Benvenuto*," which will farther tend to establish our view of Mr. Taaffe's version:

Gia si solen con le spade far guerra
 Ma or si fa togliendo or qui, or quivv
 Lo pan, che 'l pio padte a nessun serra.

*Ma tu, che sol per cancellare, scrivi,
Pensa che Pietro e Paolo, che morìo,
Per la vigna, che guasti, ancor son vivi.*

*Ben puoi tu dire : Io ho fermo 'l disiro
Si a colui, che volle viver solo,
E ch'è per salti fu tratto a martiro.*

Ch' io non conosco il Pescator, nè Polo."

DANTE, *Paradiso*, canto xviii. l. 120.

War, once, had for its instrument the sword :
But now 'tis made, taking the bread away,
Which the Good Father locks from none. And thou,
That writest but to cancel, think that they,
Who for the vineyard, which thou wastest, died,
Peter and Paul, live yet, and mark thy doings.
Thou hast good cause to cry, ' My heart so cleaves
To him that lived in solitude remote,
And from the wilds was dragged to martyrdom,
I wist not of the fisherman nor Paul.' "

CARY'S *Trans. Paradise*, canto xviii. l. 123.

What once was sword-work now is done
By a denial of that bread
The Side of Mercy keeps from none ;
O thou, who writest but to cancel, dread
The planters of the vine thou seek'st to cut !
Nor Paul nor martyred Peter's dead.
But answer bold ; — my hopes are put
In the great Eremita alone,
Who bled in Jewry for a slut ;
To me your Paul and fisherman's unknown.

Comment on Dante, p. 46.

Of these two translations, we believe that nobody can doubt which is the most clear and the nearest to the spirit and turn of the Italian. Mr. T.'s *terze rime*, also, are so rude and unmeasured, that we are surprized that he should tax Mr. Cary's versification with wanting the melody of the original. One line, however, in the above, both the translators have failed in interpreting as it ought to be: especially Mr. Cary, who has really mistaken the meaning of a word in the original, which Mr. T. has badly and absurdly though more exactly rendered. This line, applying to John the Baptist, is

" E che per salti fu tratto a martiro,"

And from the wilds was dragg'd to martyrdom." CARY.

Who bled in Jewry for a slut. TASSIE.

How could these gentlemen make two such blunders out of one of Dante's lines? Mr. Cary has evidently mistaken

the Italian nouns, *salto, salti*; Anglicè, *a leap, leaps*, — applied by the poet in the sense of a dance, — for some other which he supposed to mean a *wild* or *forest*, through which St. John was dragged to execution: while Mr. T., on the other hand, personifies the action of the dance, *i salti*, and converts it into a *Jewry shat*. This last instance really carries the author's ideas of accuracy, nice interpretation, and melody, the want of which he so much laments in Mr. Cary, rather too far; while it is not less strange that such an error on the part of Mr. C. escaped the new lynx-eyed commentator on Dante. — We venture to offer to Mr. Cary the following alteration of the line, in the subsequent editions of his truly noble and unequalled version:

“ And for a dance was led to martyrdom.”

Neither of the two versions at present conveys the meaning of the poet's allusion to St. John, with the force of the original; though both authors must have been aware of Landino's interpretation of the head of the Eremita on the Florentine coins, which is supposed to suggest the Pontiff's reply, that “ his heart was so set upon them that he cared nothing for the fisherman or St. Paul.” How does

My hopes are put
In the great Eremita alone
of Mr. Tassie give his readers an idea of this fact, even so accurately as the lines of Mr. Cary,

“ My heart so cleaves
To him that lived in solitude remote?”

which, nevertheless, do not express the *persevering* love of lucre implied in the words,

“ *Io ho fermo 'l desiro,
S' a colui, che volle viver solo.*”

The Commentator is, moreover, inaccurate in his long note appended to his translation, when he observes that St. John the Baptist was put to death for a dancing girl, Herod's daughter. He ought to have said the daughter of Herodias, with whom Herod was “ well pleased,” according to the sixth chapter of St. Mark; and who was certainly not Herod's own daughter. This is remarkable in a deep theologian, such as from the length of some of his theological commentaries we must presume Mr. Tassie to be; and not very illustrative of that accuracy which he so much recommends to others.

When

When we have given one or two other instances, we shall quit Mr. T. as a translator. The poet is reproving the luxury of the priesthood of his times:

*Venne Cephas, e venne il gran vasello
Dello Spirito Santo, magri e scaldi,
Prendendo 'l cibo di qualunque ostello;
Or voglion quinci e quindi chi rincalzi
Gli moderni pastori, e chi gli meni,
Tanto son gravi, e chi di retro gli alzi.
Cuopron de' manti lor gli palafreni,
Si che duo bestie van sott' una pelle;
O pazienza, che tanto sostieni!"*

DANTE, *Paradiso*, canto xxi. last page, line 10.

"Cephas came; —

He came, who was the Holy Spirit's vessel,
Barefoot and lean; eating their bread, as chanced,
At the first table. Modern Shepherds need
Those who on either hand may prop and lead them.
So burly are they grown; and from behind
Others to hoist them. Down the palfrey's sides
Spread their broad mantles, so as both the beasts
Are covered with one skin. O Patience! thou
That look'st on this, and dost endure so long!"

CARY, canto xxi.

The words marked in Italics in the following, from the pen of Mr. T., will exhibit a sort of construction, a confusion of imagery, and a love of punning, which are no where to be found in the original:

* Came Cephas, and came poor and bare
The vessel *elect* in lowliest gait,
Unshod, content with any fare;
Not such our modern Pastors' state
With squires and *toilets* and to *saddle-bow*
Raised with labor. — Oh, *men of weight*!
Whose mantles down their palfreys flow;
A single hide upon a pair of brutes!
How far thy patience, Heaven, can go!" (P. 77.)

Yet false in measure as these lines are, and in their non-conformity to the words and meaning of the original, (as also to Mr. Cary,) they scarcely read so badly as the ensuing:

Are we not worms shall yet be riven,
And breed the glorious butterfly
Whose wings were made to soar to heaven. *Comment.*
"Non s'accorgete voi, che noi siamo vermi
Nati a formar l'angelica farfalla;
Che vola alla giustizia senza schermi!" *Purg. canto x.*

“ Know you not
That we are worms — yet made at last to form
The winged insect imp'd with angel plumes,
That to Heaven's justice unobstructed soars ?”

This is much nobler, and nearer to the original; and the *seusa schermi* is omitted by Mr. T. altogether. We subjoin one more specimen, which we consider as far the best among the author's few scattered versions; and we have therefore great pleasure in citing it, without any parallel or comment, except on its grammatical construction in the outset:

‘ The wisdom beyond wisdom beaming,
Who made the heavens, made each a guide.
To minister the radiant streaming
And circles of creation wide;
And also placed a Queen o'er chance
Of mundane splendors with their tide
Of phantasms
Matter no whit your plots on plot:
She orders, sees, foresees the whole.
Guardian and goddess of her lot,
Her orb that never finds a goal
She keeps — and must — still fleetly tost;
While human fates as fleetly roll.
Yea! this is she whom slanders long have crost;
Pure, holy Fair so crucified!
And most by those who owe her most.
But such she hears not: — wheeling wide
Her sphere the primal race divine among;
Conscious, like them, of bliss and nought beside.

P. 445, 446.

Now, perhaps, we have seen enough of the manner in which this writer would have been likely to realize his own views of the peculiar spirit and melody of Dante's great work, in a new version. We fear that, even in that accuracy of interpretation, the deficiency of which he regrets in previous commentators and translators, he would not so far have surpassed them as his voluminous remarks would lead both himself and others, perhaps, to imagine. Had he not given this little earnest of his powers, but had rested wholly on the strength of his criticisms, he might have assumed a more imposing attitude, and have enforced the strictest laws of his system on others with a better grace.

We shall, however, attempt to dismiss from our mind the idea of his poetical character, as here exhibited, and proceed with our remarks on his Commentary as if we had never encountered the unfortunate specimens interspersed throughout

out his volume. His object, in this immense undertaking, will be best explained by his own statements; from which we learn that he has long resided in Italy, that he is likely to continue there, and that he has attached himself entirely unto the chief of the celebrated Tuscan triumvirate. He proposes 'an historical, philosophical, critical elucidation of his author's sentiments, allusions, and intentions;' because we are to suppose that the different works, historical or literary, to which the reader may recur, 'have too lengthened a way before them to allow of their delaying on the same topics more than more or less cursorily,' &c. &c. His views will be rendered still more clear by a glance at the following long-breathed period; which will most probably bring to the reader's mind similar sentences in the old Italian commentators and historians, and will afford no bad example of the very protracted style of the whole Comment before us.

'To give the substance of the multitudinous Italian comments and treatises on Dante, many of them in print and some in MS.; to reconcile their opinions where they jar, and, particularly, correct the modern by the ancient; to clear their literal interpretations, and often interesting remarks and recitals, from the ocean of allegory in which they are so immersed, as to be, for the most part, unapproachable by ordinary readers; to say all they say that is worth knowing, and much that they do not say; by inquiring more closely into the foundation of Dante's ethical and political system; and to inweave with all this constant citations from his minor works, so that one shall at length become completely familiar with them, without the necessity of actual perusal; which would perhaps be impossible, from the very old-fashioned, I may add quaint, style in which they are frequently dressed; is a subject not deficient certainly in extent or in materials.'

How far these multitudinous objects have been attained remains yet to be seen; though we cannot pretend to bestow the same pains on them which the author has taken in his Comment on eight out of the hundred books of Dante. In estimating the completion of his labors, therefore, we do not quite agree with him that they will be as easily taken up and thrown down as the Essays of Montaigne, because they happen to consist of a number of independent articles.

We meet with some new and curious information in the preface, although the authorities for it are not stated. Some historical tracts of Dante are here enumerated, of which we never before heard among those of his commentators that we have perused; as also some particulars of the poet himself, and of the intimacies that he formed with characters of all nations in his times, to which we must

must likewise confess ourselves in a great measure strangers. We do not perceive, indeed, how Mr. Tassie could arrive at his information, from the manner in which it is sometimes *asserted*, without any reference. For example, we are told that 'there was scarcely any one with whom he (Dante) was not personally acquainted, and that he *must have been* intimate with Marco Polo, the earliest modern who performed a famous voyage of discovery, and learned from him many things about the countries beyond the Line, and which are not to be found in Polo's book.' Now, though we would not presume to impeach the commentator's exactness and *fidelity*, on which he every where sets so high a value; it *must have been* rather more satisfactory to have found marginal notes or references to certain authorities on these more novel or interesting points, relative to the most wonderful character (except it be Homer) that ever appeared in the poetic world. Of the different existing versions of the "*DIVINA COMMEDIA*" into other tongues, the one displaying most ability, according to Mr. T., is in the Latin language, from the pen of Carlo d'Aquino. When he comes to our English specimens, with which he was not acquainted until very lately, (and here we approach his strictures on Mr. Cary,) he observes of that of Mr. Boyd, we suppose, —

'It is unnecessary to notice it; for ramblingly paraphrastic as it is, I believe if the title-page were cut out, and the book handed to me, I should not be aware it was intended for a translation of Dante. The other is, indeed, a very different production, I mean that of Mr. Cary. Its fidelity is exemplary, and though somewhat of a paraphrase, it is far from loose. But whatever be its *literal* merits, it does not give, nor pretend to give, any of the melody of its original. Dante writes in rhyme, and in a metre whose chief characteristics are pliancy and concision. Mr. Cary in blank verse, imitative of the stateliness and occasional prolixity of Milton.'

We are now to come to closer quarters, and to the more particular points in dispute; which, we observe from contemporary prints, are brewing the elements of a controversy. For our own part, we shall endeavor to preserve the character of impartial umpires, and to administer justice evenly, where we think praise is due. That Mr. T. has, in many instances, thrown lights or suggested hints on several contested passages, and made himself thoroughly acquainted with the various readings and comparisons of readings in the different commentaries on the poet's work, must be expected from the time and labor which he has devoted to his task; and we do not mean to deny, also, that his views are occasionally just, as

we

we shall have reason to shew. We pass over his objections, in the first place, to Mr. Cary's choice of verse, because it is beyond doubt the best that he could have adopted; and the use of Dante's own *terza rima*, to any considerable extent, has always proved a failure in the English language. Lord Byron's success, in such a fragment as the "Prophesy of Dante," will not avail the author's argument in its favor; nor would Milton, or our earlier writers, such as Sidney, Scurry, Bryan, Wyatt, and many others, (with whose specimens of *terza rima* Mr. Tassie does not appear to be much acquainted, being of older date than he is aware,) be sufficient authority for Mr. Cary in pursuing the attempt: while Mr. T. himself admits that he has not succeeded in his own. Dante is not intitled to the invention of this measure, for his master Latini wrote in it before him, and borrowed it from the "*Servientes*," or Satires of the Provençals. It proved extremely unmanageable in Mr. T.'s own hands; and he candidly avows that, after having written five cantos, he found it so heavy that he altogether renounced it. This is not greatly in favor of English *terza rima*, not even with all those principles which the author says he has disclosed; how much soever the measure may be 'famous for melody and pliancy and concision, in the Italian.' It is idle, then, for Mr. T. to protest 'most solemnly against Mr. Cary's metre, its want of harmony, his paraphrases, and, in fine, all that appertains to style, as totally inadequate to convey the remotest resemblance to the poetry of his original.' (P. xxvi.) Such assertions are futile and ill grounded; and they receive ample refutation in the grandeur and poetic beauty of Mr. C.'s version.

The Commentator is, however, right, inasmuch as it signifies, in his objection to Mr. C.'s use of the title of *Vision*, altered from that of *Comedy*, which was conferred by the poet, and which stands in nearly all the early editions; while Dante was himself careful to specify his reasons for thus calling it. Besides, no translator is allowed, whatever be the different meaning applied to the term in different tongues, to alter an original title in any way in which he may choose to explain it. We are also of opinion that Mr. T. is correct in his idea that "*lago del cuore*" (canto i. v. 20. of Dante) will bear, consistently with poetic beauty, a more literal interpretation; and that "*lake of the heart*" would not be too bold a reading, instead of "*recesses*," by which Mr. C. has rendered it.

In verse 30,

"Si che 'l piè fermo sempre era 'l più basso,"

Mr. C.

Mr. C. is challenged with having mistaken the force of the words in rendering them, "The hinder foot still firmer." Mr. T. translates thus: "With steps that backward hung," and better expressing the allusion to the poet's reluctance; and this we think must appear obvious to all, "The hinder foot still firmer" not including such a meaning, without the aid of a commentary. Still these words are more accurate and nearer to the original context than Mr. Tassie's phrase; and Mr. Cary was not bound to be more clear and expressive than Dante himself. We should not forget, also, that it is often a mere matter of opinion, when we endeavor to attain his real meaning.

In considering the Panther, that obstructs the poet's path, rather as a personification of Florence than as voluptuousness in the abstract, or that of the poet, we conceive Mr. Tassie to be in a great measure borne out by the spirit and tenor of the whole poem; though in this instance he differs from nearly all the Florentine commentators, who defend their own city by making the poet speak in general terms, or even accuse himself. Certainly, such an interpretation will be found to throw much light on this obscure passage, while in no other way the other parts will become so intelligible; — and the same reasoning will apply to the three beasts, usually interpreted to mean the abstract of Ambition, Luxury, and Avarice. These Mr. Tassie undertakes to prove from scriptural analogy, from Dante's own words in other places, and from the poet's particular situation in reference to political affairs, to be neither abstract generalities nor in any way applicable to the poet himself. The Lion, then, Mr. T. would apply to the king of France, that monarch's house being among the active persecutors of Dante, who, when addressing one of the French princes, speaks of his elder brother the sovereign as "a still loftier lion." ("Friendship Lion," Parad. b. vi.) The same argument is equally satisfactory against the ancient commentators, when they interpreted the Wolf into mere abstract avarice, or that of the poet himself; which is applied, on the contrary, by Mr. T. to the papal court of Boniface, notorious for its extortions at the period when the poet wrote. Should this idea be deemed too much opposed to the various readings of Dante's own sonnets, and all the elder commentators, let it be recollected in how much greater awe they stood, than the exiled poet himself, of the papal court; and that they might fear to point out the application which their penetration discovered.

If the readers of Dante have reason to feel indebted to the present commentator for his opinions on this important portion of the *Commedia*, they will find him equally useful on some

some less essential passages: but we cannot agree with him in his remark on Mr. Cary, in v. 109, when he says that Mr. C.'s misconstruction of the entire allegory leads him into the common difficulty of making 'Can chase Avasice through every town, — which who can comprehend? — for here it is rather singular that, while he upbraids Mr. C. with not making it intelligible, he is himself unable to supply us with any better meaning, after an inquiry of many pages, which leaves the matter in nearly the same degree of uncertainty as before. The sole result is that he proposes Can's brothers as the object of the poet's eulogium, instead of Can himself; and he closes his long note without suggesting any new reading of the passage.

This instance, which partakes not a little of the commentator's over-nicety and a spirit of cavilling, is followed by several other remarks still more idle. Thus he blames Mr. Cary for 'misinterpreting St. Peter's gate, the gate of purgatory instead of paradise,' and rendering the term '*nobilitate* by eminent endowments,' whereas, says Mr. T., 'it was probably intended to convey some though a secondary reference to the birth-right of its author, at the same time.' Again, he thinks, "*that fierce fire*," *esto incendio*, would have been better altered to "*yon fierce fire*;" and *Donna Gentil* is made to mean *Divine Mercy*, without a notion of her having been a real lady: a fact which it appears Mr. T. learnt from a MS. preserved in the Riccardi library, unknown to previous commentators.

vi.] Dismissing these abundantly refined and unsubstantial comments, both on the great poet of Italy and on his translator, we meet with a serious charge at v. 124, canto 11. 'Mr. Cary calls the three maids, "Divine Mercy, Lucia, and Beatrice," an odd jumble of fact and allegory. In all this he seems not quite to have understood his original.'—Yet, while Mr. Tassili thus reflects on Mr. C., he admits that M. Biagioli, in his late comment, calls the passage respecting the three ladies the most obscure and difficult of any throughout the whole divine comedy; and although he adds 'I am not exactly of this opinion, yet it is certain that the various allegorical subtilties introduced by those who pretend to expound it, suffice to confuse any head!' (P. 152.) The author should in justice have been a little less severe on such a disputed point, with regard to Mr. Cary, before he ventured an hypothesis which is, after all, liable to the same strictures that he has made on Mr. C.: for we are at a loss to see how it is diverted of all obscurity by supposing them to be three ladies of Dante's acquaintance, one of whose apotheosis must have taken place no later (perhaps not much later) than the time of the

before her death; or that we are to consider it as 'an encomium on his own virtue, as well as theirs, to represent the three females whom he had admired on earth as become three saints in paradise.' (P. 153.)

Respecting the author's objection to Mr. C.'s "deep and woody way," ("*cammino alto e silvestro*") v. 142., we agree with this commentator that "deep" would be better "steep," for the descent of the path did not prevent it from being steep; though we do not mean that Mr. C. does not give the sense of the Italian, because *alto* may be rendered either way; but *steep* would be clearer to English readers.

From the whole context of the passage, we are likewise inclined to read *error* instead of *error*, with Mr. T.; who has the authority of Boccaccio with that of Velutello and Landino, (not Lombardi, as Mr. T. asserts,) against Mr. Cary and the rest of the commentators. (Canto iii. v. 82.) Indeed, it is much more natural that the poet, hearing these appalling cries of woe, should observe,

"I then with horror still encompassed cried,"
than,

"I yet with error still encompassed;" —
for he could not *err* with regard to the cries being caused by the sufferings of the damned, though he was unacquainted with their particular crimes, concerning which he questions his master, Virgil.

We must next notice Mr. T.'s objection to the conclusion of the grand lines which are put into the mouth of Charon, and which are so finely rendered by Mr. Cary:

"And lo! toward us in a bark
Comes on an old man, hoary grey with eld,
Crying woe to you wicked spirits! hope not
Ever to see the sky again."

This, Mr. T. remarks, might be proper in Virgil's hell, "where such a return to life was held possible, but what has it in common with this Catholic poem? But Mr. C. not only translates *cielo* sky, but he interpolates *an* again." (Comment. p. 203.) We think that Mr. Cary has here improved on his original, and that his closing line is far superior to what we take to be the literal meaning of Dante, "Hope not ever to see heaven," ("*Non isperate mai veder lo cielo*,"), though it is quite close enough to obviate the least objection. It is to such judicious freedoms that we may, in part, attribute the truly English fame which he has acquired, and which will accompany that of Dante as long as the two languages continue to exist; leading the real admirers of the poet

poet to a repeated perusal of a version, in which they will not fail to trace the true spirit and grandeur of its great archetype. For our own part, we may observe that, after reiterated study and comparison of both, in not less than six several readings, and long before we saw Mr. T.'s Comment, we were quite aware of the extent of Mr. Cary's unimportant freedoms with his original, but never thought of making them the subject of serious animadversion before the public. We would advise Mr. T. to consider, then, in his future lucubrations, that "the golden mean," inculcated by Horace, will be found to apply not less to the duty of the commentator than to that of the poet; that there is a line not to be overstepped by the most scrupulous of critics; and that to detect and to dwell on the least blemishes, and the want of entire perfection, in human productions, discovers less of true criticism than of cavilling.

Of this character, perhaps, we may notice canto iii. v. 117. "*Com' angel per suo richiamo*," rendered by Mr. C. "As falcon at his call," and in which he is borne out by Velutello and Boccaccio; but all this does not save him from the following reflections: 'Had he even consulted his dictionary, he would have learned that neither *paretajo* nor *boschetto* means *cage*, but the place where nets are placed to catch birds.' Now this is here advanced in the face of the commentator's former assertion that Boccaccio was the safest of all authorities; and the sole distinction between the interpretations is so extremely fine, that it would seem to resolve itself into the circumstance of Mr. Cary and Boccaccio having never been out fowling together in Tuscany. Still worse we think are the following: canto iv. verse 123.: 'Mr. Cary, by making *occhi grifagni*, "hawk's eye," puts the species for the variety; and verse 125., 'Mr. Cary's *ferce* ("the Soldan *ferce*") is an interpolation, and one quite out of the spirit of the original.' Canto v. verse 78., '*Per quell amor ch' ei mena*,' Mr. C.'s "love which carries them along," is as deficient as the French version.' Verse 82., 'Mr. Cary's "by fond desire invited" is less exceptionable than the French, yet inasmuch as it may be referred to sexual desire, it is wrong.' Verse 138., '*Quel giorno piu non vi legemmo avanti*.' 'The feebleness of Mr. Cary's translation here proceeds from its verbal infidelity; for he interpolates, "in its leaves." That day we did not read it more, is the original, word for word.'

"And here the eternal doom re-echoing rend
The vault." CARY. Canto vi. l. 99:

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'How poor is *doom*, instead of *his*; — *quel!* For I translate verbatim, "Shall hear *him* who echoes through eternity," making *quel* mean *solui*, or *Iddio*, (God,) and not *quel suono*, which last word is considered by some commentators as understood, but unnecessarily; and, I think, most injudiciously.' *Comment. note, p. 382.*

If such instances as the foregoing do not afford strong proof of hypercriticism, with reference to Mr. Cary, we do not know in what it really consists. We have given as much as we conceive to be sufficient to afford our readers an insight into Mr. T.'s real qualities, both "good and evil," as a voluminous commentator: but, in closing our labors, we shall refer to a few of the most important passages, which do not immediately apply to the merits of Mr. C.'s version.

It is chiefly in this light, as a general comment on the more obscure portions of the "*Divina Commedia*," that Mr. T.'s book will be found valuable as a guide to English students, and as a sort of supplement to, and a review of, the previous labors and explanations of foreign critics. So far the work is new to our English literature: for, though we are in possession of notes and fragments on the same subject by various hands, we have nothing so full and complete, or on such an extensive scale, as the present undertaking: which, long and laborious as it promises to be, will not be deemed either too arduous or too protracted by those who have learnt, or by those who wish to learn, the extent of the great and inexhaustible treasures which belong only in common with Homer to the mighty Florentine. His genius embraces the age in which he lived; and, as it has been said of his only predecessor, the Grecian bard, there is no species of knowledge on which his poem does not flash the light of an instructive and a prophetic mind. He belongs to no school, because he could have no imitators. The great master-spirit of his ~~class~~, he takes, like some mighty actor, full possession of the stage, and stands in solitary grandeur, not with Italy alone but the whole world for his spectators. Shakspeare, Spenser, Milton, the geniuses of all other periods and nations, have had "their comates and brothers" in glory: but Dante, in "his spirit's exile," had none. "They were at the head of schools, each filling up the portion of the ages assigned to them; and surrounded by their imitators and companions: while Homer and Dante held themselves aloof, and begged their way on foot from city to city: — cities which were afterward eager to dispute the claim to the poet's birth."

No one, therefore, should lightly take on himself the dangerous honor of commenting on the intellectual creations of

of such spirits; and still less ought he heedlessly or unfeelingly to cavil at the more hazardous yet finely accomplished task of such a transfusion of Dante's mind, as is rendered to us in the translation of Mr. Cary. Deficient, however, as we have shewn Mr. Taaffe to be in poetic taste and execution, and in substantiating many of his objections against Mr. C., yet, as far as industry and learning may supply the place of a higher and more intuitive faculty, he does not appear unfitted to discharge the weighty duties of the character which he has assumed.

Thus (page 398.), on Dante's Hebrew line, "Pa pe Satani! Fu pe Satan aleppe!" which appears to have defied the efforts of previous commentators, the new interpretation of Mr. Taaffe renders it clear and satisfactory. "Look out, Satan, look out in the majesty of thy splendors, princely Satan!" "What venerable concision," observes Mr. T., "is that of the original! Two long lines,

"Forth, Satan, forth! Thine awful forehead shine!

O princely Satan, for one gleam of thine —"

are scarcely a paraphrase.' We believe, however, that this is a disputed discovery between the commentator and the Abbé Lancel, which we must leave them to settle as well as they can.

The verbal exposition of the next passage, with some others that follow, is more indubitably Mr. T.'s own. (*Comment.* p. 437.)

"Evil spending and evil hoarding robbed them of the beautiful world." Most annotators interpret "beautiful world," Paradise; but some (among whom I am one) think it signifies this beautiful natural world. I have preferred putting this obvious interpretation on the text to that usually given, (avarice and prodigality shut all these wretches out of Paradise,) because Virgil need scarcely have told *that* to Dante, who *seen* them in hell; and, besides, it were a repetition of what has been said so often.

Accompanied by 'bird's eye views,' as the author terms them, of the various circles of the poet's hell, we come to Mr. T.'s remarks on the punishment of "anger," (*Comment.* c. vii, p. 451.) and this passage will give no bad idea of his whole style of annotating and explaining.

The obvious signification of Virgil's words is, "It is anger that is punished in this lake: those whom you see on the surface were men who allowed themselves to be habitually overpowered by transports of violence; and the bubbles that you see rising (or rather *bourgeoning*) all along the water are the hard breathings of crowds, who are there deeply immersed for having been contaminated

tainted with a still worse description of the same iniquity — pent-up anger, or hate." This is of a piece with what we shall see in the "river of blood," of a future canto; where the sufferers are plunged more or less deeply, according to their gradations in the same crime, *tyranny*.

Again, canto, vii., p. 452.

"I am quite of Daniello's opinion, that it is the second and worse description of anger that is below the surface, sticking in the hellish mud. We call it hate. "With a furious man thou shalt not go." "It is an implacability of nature (thus Boccaccio), with which the Tuscans are cursed above all other Italians, and the Florentines above all other Tuscans. The Florentines never pardon." Yet Dante's manner of rendering his idea is somewhat defective in clearness, for (*accidioso fumo*) "lazy smoke" induces many to contend that it is no description of *anger*, but merely *loath* that is, stinking in the bottom of Styx. But why make sloth more criminal than anger? Dante does quite the contrary in Purgatory: nor would he have subverted there the ethical scale which he had adopted here. Besides, the slothful are evidently included among the despicable crew, who "ne'er were living yet," and whom we saw in the vestibule."

We must now take our leave of Mr. Taaffe and this first of his twelve Herculean labors, "things unattempted yet in prose or rhyme:" but we must wish him long life and health, if we are to indulge the hopes of receiving an annual importation of "Comment" from Italy. Had we more time and space, we could farther remark on the various advantages which, we think, English literati and English literature might derive from such an accession to its strength in a department of criticism but little explored, and too long and unaccountably neglected. When we reflect how greatly we have been indebted to the transcendant genius of Italy, above that of all other countries, in supplying our early dramatic, epic, romantic, and pastoral writers of every description with models for their pen, and with sources of poetic imagery and feeling, we conceive it to be quite incumbent on us to direct a portion of our critical inquiries to the exact nature, character, and importance of the productions of Italy's "master-spirits" of their age. Above all these, Dante towers like a giant: he deserves, and he will bear, all the tomes of commentary which Mr. T. can lay on him; and when an Italian opens the *Divina Commedia*, he ought to address him, as the poet addresses Virgil:

"O pregio eterna del luogo, ond' i fui:

Qual merito, O qual grazia mi ti mostra?"

Purgat., c. viii. v. 180

And.

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ART. II. *Memoirs of a Captivity among the Indians of North America, from Childhood to the Age of Nineteen; with Anecdotes descriptive of their Manners and Customs. To which is added, some Account of the Soil, Climate, and Vegetable Productions of the Territory westward of the Mississippi.* By John D. Hunter. 8vo. pp. 446. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

WE have lately heard much about the Indians of North America, and the wild regions which they inhabit, — the country rude as the savage, and the savage rude as the country; but we have not often received accounts of these people from the pen of an individual who has been for years one of themselves, and, in every thing but his actual birth and parentage, an Indian, imbibing their feelings, practising their manners, and living their life. Such a detail, however, unusual and extraordinary as it must be, is now presented to us.

This singular accession to our host of writers appears before the English public, avowing an imperfect acquaintance with our language, and a total ignorance of the art of book-making; intending simply to be the memorialist of his own captivity by the Indians of North America, and of his residence among several of their tribes, from the period of infancy to his assumption of the habits of civilized life at the age of manhood. There is something, however, so very striking and singular in his narrative; and the account of his expeditions, in the battle and the chase, with the Pawnees and the Kansas, the Ottowas and the Osages, the Shawnees, and the Kickapoos, has so romantic an air; that a certain degree of incredulity might naturally have been anticipated, as to the veracity of the relator. It may well excite astonishment, indeed, that a person kidnapped in his infancy, torn away from all civilized society before he could lisp his mother's tongue or articulate his mother's name; plunged into the deep forests of America by a tribe of savages, and learning no other than their barbarous and imperfect language; following for nearly twenty years the wandering life which they passed, roots and the wild buffalo his food, and the skins of hunted animals his clothing; — it must excite astonishment, we say, that a person so brought up should, in the short space of a few years from his escape, have been able to compose a volume in the English language, in which terms of art and science are frequently and appropriately used, and subjects relating to physics, morals, jurisprudence, natural history, commerce, manufactures, &c. are introduced as occasion requires. On the first notification of this forthcoming book, therefore, it was suspected to be the fabrication of some ingenious

impostor; and people who could gulp down without an effort the enormous lies of "The Fortunate Youth," of recent notoriety, affected to have a contracted swallow when this narrative was presented to them: which, after all, is only a mouse to a mammoth, a gnat to a camel. When Mr. Hunter himself made his appearance, however, with letters of introduction from gentlemen of the highest character and station in the United States, all suspicion was removed; and, happening to know persons who have become well acquainted with him in this country, we learn on their indisputable authority that none who have passed a single afternoon in his company, whatever might have been their previous impressions, have any longer had the slightest doubt that he is exactly what he represents himself to be: or that his story, recorded as it is entirely from memory, the savages among whom he lived having no written language, is perfectly faithful.

With the circumstances which led to his captivity, the author is altogether ignorant. The Indians on their own frontier settlements regard with great and well-grounded jealousy the slightest invasion of their boundaries on the part of the Whites; fatal experience having taught them that the first invasion, even when it has been effected with their consent, invariably leads to farther encroachments, and then to expulsion from their old hereditary domains, if not to the positive extermination even of their tribe. The white out-settlers, also, are frequently men of indolent and dissolute habits, procuring an uncertain livelihood, like the Indians themselves, by fishing and hunting. This wandering mode of life makes them acquainted with their manners and languages; and first a few scattered individuals, then one or two, and afterward more families, venture in pursuit of game into the territories of the Indians, till the jealousy of the latter is excited, and they are often provoked, by petty frauds and thefts. A silent and certain vengeance is then at hand: the Indian broods over his wrongs in secrecy, but never forgets them till he has been amply revenged in the blood of his enemy. The first complaints are individual and feeble: when they grow clamorous, a council is convened, the subject is debated, the measure of redress determined, and instantly carried into execution: but sometimes secret combinations of young warriors, anxious to acquire celebrity and distinction, anticipate this form, and the first intelligence which the chiefs have of their scheme is their return from the expedition with scalps and prisoners. It is probable that in some such excursion as this the writer was captured, and his parents killed.

I was

I was taken prisoner at a very early period of my life by a party of Indians, who, from the train of events that followed, belonged to, or were in alliance with, the Kickapoo nation. At the same time, two other white children, a boy and a small girl, were also made prisoners.

I have too imperfect a recollection of the circumstances connected with this capture, to attempt any account of them; although I have reflected on the subject so often, and with so great interest and intensity, under the knowledge I have since acquired of the Indian modes of warfare, as nearly to establish at times a conviction of my mind of a perfect remembrance. There are moments when I see the rush of the Indians, hear their war-whoops and terrific yells, and witness the massacre of my parents and connections, the pillage of their property, and the incendious destruction of their dwellings. But the first incident that made an actual and prominent impression on me happened while the party were somewhere encamped, no doubt shortly after my capture; it was as follows: The little girl whom I before mentioned, beginning to cry, was immediately dispatched with the blow of a tomahawk from one of the warriors: the circumstance terrified me very much, more particularly as it was followed with very menacing motions of the same instrument, directed to me, and then pointed to the slaughtered infant, by the same warrior, which I then interpreted to signify, that if I cried, he would serve me in the same manner. From this period till the apprehension of personal danger had subsided, I recollect many of the occurrences which took place.

Soon after the above transaction, we proceeded on our journey till a party separated from the main body, and took the boy before noticed with them, which was the last I saw or heard of him.

The Indians generally separate their white prisoners. The practice no doubt originated more with a view to hasten a reconciliation to their change, and a nationalization of feelings, than with any intention of wanton cruelty.

This poor orphan was adopted into the family of a warrior named Fongob, who claimed him as his property, having captured him; and his wife, a squaw of intermediate stature and dark complexion, proved to him a kind and affectionate mother. As he grew larger, the Indian boys would occasionally upbraid him with being *white*, and the whites with them are all *squaws*, a term of reproach used in contradistinction to that of *warrior*. He was therefore often involved in boyish conflicts, which were fairly conducted; the victor always receiving the praises of the men, and even the vanquished, if he had conducted himself bravely, obtaining his due share of encouragement. While travelling with the different tribes, the author says that he recollects to have met three or four white children of his own age, who had been

forced to assume the character and habits of the Indians, and who seemed as happy as if they had descended from them.

It is a remarkable fact, that white people generally, when brought up among the Indians, become unalterably attached to their customs, and seldom afterwards abandon them. I have known two instances of white persons, who had arrived at manhood, leaving their connections and civilized habits, assuming the Indian, and fulfilling all his duties. These, however, happened among the Cherokees. Thus far I am an exception, and it is highly probable I shall ever remain such; though, I must confess, the struggle in my bosom was for a considerable time doubtful, and even now my mind often reverts to the innocent scenes of my childhood, with a mixture of pleasurable and painful emotions that is altogether indescribable. But my intercourse with refined society, acquaintance with books, and a glimpse at the wonderful structure into which the mind is capable of being moulded, have, I am convinced, unalterably attached me to a social intercourse with civilized man, composed as he is of crudities and contradictions.

The Indians — like their brother-lords of the soil, the great land-owners of this country — are very tenacious of their own game, and as much addicted to poach on their neighbours; half the quarrels among Indian chiefs, as well as among country-squires, being about game; and if such humble and harmless animals as the hare, the pheasant, and the partridge, are objects of eager contest and pursuit with the well-fed gentry of Norfolk and Suffolk, it can hardly excite surprise that the nobler and more dangerous chase of the buffalo, the elk, and the deer, should rouse from their lethargy the hungry savages who roam along the banks of the Maramack, the Arkansas, and the Missouri. The author's friends, the Kickapoos, were much addicted to roving; for their hunting grounds were thinly supplied with game, and those of their neighbours abounded with it. A migration of a part of that tribe was accordingly determined, to form a junction with some of their brethren who had already fixed their huts on the west of the Missouri; and the young *white* was taken with the marching party, but his squaw-mother was left behind. The separation filled me, says he, 'with the most painful sensations, but I had then become so old as to appreciate the importance of sustaining my Indian character, and therefore scorned to complain.' Many skirmishes took place with the Osages and the Pawnees, and the party was at last cut off by a roving body of Kansas; who carried several prisoners, including the writer, to their own towns on the Kansas river, several hundred miles above its confluence with the

the Missouri. Here he was adopted into the family of Kees-nee-tah by his squaw, and was treated not only by her but by the chiefs and squaws of the whole tribe with tenderness. All the captive women and children were received in the same kind manner, but the greater part of the warriors were tortured to death; a few only, on account of their distinguished bravery, being permitted to live among them. Bravery and gratitude are virtues held in the highest estimation by all Indian tribes. Utility is found to be the basis of virtue in all countries, and experience tells these people that without bravery they could not defend themselves even in their youth; and that without inculcating gratitude on the part of their children, they would neither be nourished nor protected in the peculiar helplessness which belongs to *their* old age. A specimen of the moral code of the Kansas may be learnt from the lips of Tshut-che-nau. (*Defender of the People*).

"This venerable worn-out warrior would often admonish us for our faults; and exhort us never to tell a lie. "Never steal, except it be from an enemy, whom it is just that we should injure in every possible way. When you become men, be brave and cunning, in war, and defend your hunting grounds against all encroachments. Never suffer your squaws or little ones to want. Protect the squaws and strangers from insult. On no account betray your friend. Resent insults — revenge yourselves on your enemies. Drink not the poisonous strong-water of the white people; it is sent by the Bad Spirit to destroy the Indians. Be not death; none but cowards fear to die. Obey and respect the old people, particularly your parents. Bear and propitiate the Bad Spirit, that he may do you no harm; — love and adore the Good Spirit, who made us all, who supplies our hunting grounds, and keeps us alive."

When the author was about ten or twelve years old, he experienced the most poignant grief from the loss of the

* Mr. James, in his "Account of an Expedition to the Rocky Mountains," (noticed in our numbers for August and September,) mentions some Indians whom he met as being negligent of their old people, and indifferent to their deaths: but we find that Mr. Hunter has repeatedly assured his friends here in conversation, that the greatest possible reverence is paid to old age among all the tribes with which he is acquainted; and so far are they from being indifferent to the decease of those belonging to their tribe, that, if in any engagement they find it impossible to bring away those who are killed, they will traverse immense distances, even after a lapse of years, if no earlier opportunity occurs, for the purpose of exhuming their slaughtered warriors, and of bringing them to their native territories for burial. (See p. 273; also p. 359, 40, 360.)

sister who had adopted him among her children, who was accidentally drowned in attempting to collect drift-wood during the prevalence of a flood. The Indians, however, regard tears or any expression of grief as a mark of weakness in males, and unworthy the character of a warrior; and therefore he bore his affliction in silence, though he felt it perhaps the more acutely, for she had been a tender and affectionate parent to him. At this distant period of time, in a situation and under circumstances so different, the tribute which he bears to the memory of his adopted mother is truly honorable to his feelings.

In the following spring he was, for the first time, admitted into a party of hunters, consisting of about thirty men and eleven boys. Their course was along the Kansas river, almost to its source; they crossed the head-waters of several streams, which flow into the Missouri, passed the summer in roving and hunting, and in 'the fall' ascended the river La Platte for several hundred miles, with a view to obtain furs; which had become an object of such importance to the several tribes inhabiting these districts, as to be the cause of frequent contentions. On their return homewards they fell in with a party of Osages, who treated them in a friendly manner; although they learned that the tribe of Osages, under a chief named *White Hair*, had joined the confederacy then in arms against them. As the disputed districts were traversed by belligerents in every direction, and the Kansas party of hunters was much too weak to stand even on the defensive, unassisted, they resolved to throw themselves on the protection of the Osages. Two peace-runners, with friendly tokens, were therefore dispatched to the chief, who convened a council, and sent six of his warriors to welcome their arrival. The conference was a specimen of open, straightforward diplomacy, which might have been usefully studied by many modern ministers at many modern congresses. Kee-nees-tah, the chief of the party and the author's father, by adoption, saluting the principal Osage, observed, "Our people are now at war; I left them friends at the time I started on a hunting excursion many moons ago, without any hostile intentions to yours or any other tribe. I cannot return to my people in safety, and come to claim of you the rights of hospitality." The Osage chief, in the name of his nation, assured Kee-nees-tah of his friendship and regard, and invited the Kansas party to sit at the same fire and smoke the same pipe with them: they then accompanied the Osages to their town, where they were welcomed by all the inhabitants, amounting to about fifteen hundred, in the most cordial manner.

manner. Here the writer was received into the family of Shek-thesh, a distinguished warrior, at the instance of Hank-hah, his wife, who had recently lost a son in some engagement with another tribe; and again he was treated with all imaginable kindness, supplying the place of the lost child in the affections of his parents. It was during his residence with the Osages that he first felt the desire of distinguishing himself as a warrior, in the perils and glory of which character he had been initiated; and having used his rifle in the chase with such success, that he received from the Indians the appellation of the *Hunter*. The depredations of the wandering Pawnees on the property of the Osages soon gave him an opportunity of gratifying his ambition. Some squaw, who had gone after the horses for the purpose of bringing in game, surprised a marauding party in the very act of stealing them; and on this discovery a party of about thirty warriors, including the young aspirant, now about sixteen or seventeen years of age, started in pursuit, followed their trail to a considerable distance up the Grand Arkansas river, and surprised the enemy, who were secreted among cliffs and long prairie grass.

We then singled out our objects, and, on a signal given by the chief, fired on them. The surprise was complete: the party, which was much more numerous than ours, was routed, and eighteen scalps taken. In this engagement, I took a scalp, which was my first and last essay of the kind. I name this with grateful remembrance to my present feelings; but, as I set out to give a correct history of my life, I cannot, in justice to the subject, omit this circumstance.

After so decisive a victory, any further pursuit of the enemy would have been useless, for fear had added speed to their flight. We therefore returned home, where we were received as war parties usually are by the Indians, after a fortunate and successful expedition. Previous to this occurrence, I had never received any marked attention from the squaws; but on this occasion, particularly, the young ones danced around me in the most extravagant and exulting manner. They ornamented my head, arms, and legs, with feathers, stained porcupine-quills, deer-sinews, &c. and struck up the song of victory, accompanied with their musical instruments, if such as they use deserve that name.

It has already been noticed that Mr. Hunter, — such being the name permanently assumed by him from the first denomination of the Indians, — had occasionally seen a white person, and during his residence with the Osages they were frequently visited by white traders, who bartered their rifles, for skins and furs. Growing up to manhood, he felt a very eager desire to know something about a people to which he had evidently

dently belonged by nature; but, whenever his inquiries took that direction, he was answered by the Indians that the whites were an inferior order of beings, wicked, treacherous, cowardly, and fit to transact only the ordinary drudgeries of life. The conduct of several among them was, indeed, but little calculated to efface this impression: but many of the traders were particularly kind and attentive to him; and, from their representations that the white people were much more powerful and numerous than the Indians, brave, generous, and good; that they lived in large houses, some of which floated on the great waters; and that they fought with enormous guns which could kill many enemies at a single fire; his curiosity was worked up to a pitch of great excitement, and his mind filled with astonishment at the accounts related to him. Frequently he expressed a wish to visit them, and this wish long occupied his thoughts: but his curiosity was for a time repressed by the Indians, who told him that after he had grown up, taken many scalps, and become a renowned warrior, he might visit the white people with impunity, as they would then behold him with consternation and dread. His attention, too, was for a time diverted from this object by a hunting expedition of sixteen moons' duration, commencing up the Arkansas; and in the course of which he and his party crossed the Rocky Mountains, and reached the Pacific Ocean on the south side of the Columbia river. This is a very striking narrative; and the astonishment felt at the survey of this unbounded mass of waters, which tradition had handed down to the Indians as dividing the residence of the Great Spirit from the temporary abode of his red children, is represented as indescribably great. 'We here contemplated in silent dread the immense difficulties over which we should be obliged to triumph after death, before we could arrive at those delightful hunting grounds which are unalterably destined for such only as do good, and love the Great Spirit. We looked in vain for the stranded and shattered canoes of those who had done wickedly: we could see none, and were led to hope that they were few in number.' This is a beautiful expression of native benevolence!

The Osages had looked upon us as lost, and greeted our arrival among them in the most joyful and tumultuous manner. My Indian mother and sister wept aloud, and the squaws, young and old, danced around us to the cadence of their festival songs, and decorated our persons in the same manner as though we had returned triumphant over the enemies of our country. The old men and warriors listened with wonder and astonishment at the narration of our adventures, and lavished on us the meeds of praise,

praise, and high encomiums, heretofore only bestowed on the most distinguished of their nation. In fine, Tare-beem, who before ranked as a distinguished and leading warrior, was now listened to among the sage counsellors: the rest of the party were ranked among the bravest of the warriors, and many of the unmarried men received from the young squaws, some a greater and some a less number of *ears of corn*, as so many individual invitations to enter into matrimonial alliances.

When the beaver-season is over, the Indians generally terminate their hunting campaigns by the pursuit of such inferior kinds of game as resort to the small streams and hills for food; and they usually break into small parties, without separating far from each other. In one of these excursions, six, out of about thirty of which the whole party consisted, visited an encampment on the Arkansas, belonging to a Colonel Watkins, who had resorted thither for the purpose of trading with the Osages. Mr. Hunter had received various little presents and marks of attention from the Colonel, who frequently urged him in the most pressing manner to accompany him back to the white settlements: but, attached to his wandering mode of life, and regarding his connection and relationship with the Indians as too sacred to be wantonly violated, he peremptorily resisted every persuasion. The detachment that visited the Colonel's camp unfortunately bartered their goods for whiskey: on leaving him, they stole six of his horses which were grazing in the prairies; and, maddened with liquor, they fell in with a Mons. La Fouché, a French trader, whom they killed and scalped, and whose camp they plundered of all the furs and skins which it contained. Returning to their companions, they circulated the intoxicating draft, exhibited the scalp of the unfortunate La Fouché, threw down the spoils which they had obtained, trampled them under foot, and in the most frantic manner vowed vengeance against the whites. As the whiskey went round, nothing was seen or heard but the war-dance and the war-song, with dreadful imprecations against those who had trespassed on their rights and robbed them of their game. They said that the great quantity of furs, which they had seen at Colonel Watkins's camp, would be an inducement to other parties to frequent their grounds, if he were suffered to take them away. "Our lands," they exclaimed, "now our pride and glory, will become as desolate as the Rocky Mountains, whither perhaps we shall be obliged to fly for support and protection." In short, it was resolved to way-lay, cut off, and plunder the whole of the Colonel's party. These proceedings, Mr. Hunter says, excited in his bosom sensations of the acutest

acute pain; and, be the consequences what they might, his resolution was instantly taken, and as instantly put in execution, to save the lives of Watkins and his party by giving them the alarm. The better to conceal his project, he joined the most vociferous in approving the measure; and, having already obtained a high place in their confidence, he was appointed, by his own desire, guard to their encampment.

The Indians having retired to rest, drowsy and drunk, he silently removed all the flints from their guns, and emptied the pans of their primings; he then took his own rifle and equipments, disengaged from their fastenings all the horses which had been stolen, that the Indians might not pursue him, and, mounting the best of them, made his escape at midnight. The distance was about twenty-five miles from Watkins's camp, chiefly through thick briars and brushwood, without path or trail to direct his steps. The watch-dog heard the noise and gave alarm, alternately breaking off and renewing his pursuit of the fugitive. Mr. Hunter at last shot him, and having reloaded his rifle, reached the camp, bleeding and exhausted, before any of the party had left it in their daily pursuit of game. His extreme agitation gave confirmation to his story; the hunters were greatly alarmed, and proposed an immediate retreat: but Colonel Watkins ordered preparations to repel any attack, and urged Mr. H. to join them. This proposal gave such an immediate shock to his feelings, that he 'now hated the very looks of Colonel Watkins, who before had appeared so amiable and good.' It was sufficient, he thought, to have betrayed his countrymen, without aggravating the crime by fighting against them; and the struggle which took place in his mind, on this and some other occasions, is described with so much simplicity and force, that the reader seems to be an eye-witness of the actual revulsion of his feelings.

It was finally determined to break up the encampment, and instant preparations were made for that purpose. Mr. H. descended the Arkansas with the party, nearly to its junction with the Mississippi: but the consciousness that he had abused the confidence of the Osages, though from the highest motives of moral duty, weighed heavily on his mind. So dissatisfied did he feel with his situation and relations with the whites, that, in spite of the most pressing solicitations and advantageous offers of Colonel Watkins*, he determined to

* This gentleman felt all the gratitude due to his deliverer; and we find a letter from him to Mr. H., dated from the Missouri in March, 1821, highly honorable to both parties.

abandon the party in search of consolation and quiet to his half-distracted mind, among some tribe of Indians who, ignorant of his treachery towards the Osages, would receive him into their fellowship. Having received some presents of hints, powder, balls, &c., he accordingly set off by himself in a northerly direction, over luxuriant prairies, where very numerous herds of buffalo, elk, and deer found abundant subsistence. Rattlesnakes, both black and party-coloured, were very large and numerous; and they would infest the country still more but for the hostility which exists between them and the deer, which animal, on discovering a snake, as Mr. H. repeatedly witnessed, retreats some distance from it, then runs to it with great rapidity, alights with its collected feet on it, and repeats this manœuvre till it has destroyed its enemy. — Desolate, and without a human being near him, the author's sole companions were the grazing and carnivorous animals around him; and the only sources of amusement which presented themselves in this fearful solitude were to watch their various habits and dispositions, and to secure his own safety and supply of food. His anxieties and regrets about his nation and kindred for a long time overwhelmed his spirits: but, says he, 'I looked unwaveringly to the Great Spirit in whom experience had taught me to confide, and the tumultuous agitations of my mind gradually subsided into a calm.' He could lie down to sleep among the rocks and ravines, hear the wolf and the panther prowling near, and almost feel the venomous reptiles seeking shelter under his garment, with indifference. In one instance, he vexed a rattle-snake till it bit itself, and died from the poison of its own fangs. (P. 110.) He saw another strangled in the folds of its enemy, the black snake. Having shot a panther which made a spring at him, he says,

'I reloaded my rifle before I ventured to approach it, and even then not without some apprehension. I took its skin, and was, with the assistance of fire and smoke, enabled to preserve and dress it. I name this circumstance, because it afterwards afforded a source for some amusement: for I used frequently to array myself in it, as near as possible to the costume and form of the original, and surprise the herds of buffalos, elk, and deer, which, on my approach, uniformly fled with great precipitation and dread. On several occasions, when I awaked in the morning, I found a rattlesnake coiled up close alongside of me: some precaution was necessarily used to avoid them. In one instance I lay quiet till the snake saw fit to retire; in another, I rolled gradually and imperceptibly two or three times over, till out of its reach. And in another, where the snake was still more remote, but in which we simultaneously discovered each other, I was obliged, while it

was generously warning me of the danger I had to fear from the venomous potency of its fangs, to kill it with my tomahawk. These reptiles, as before observed, especially in stony grounds, are very numerous: the black ones are short and thick, but the party-coloured ones are very large and long. I saw many that would, I am certain, have measured seven or eight feet in length. They are not, however, considered by the Indians so poisonous as the former; but, from the distance they are able to strike, and the great depth of the wounds they inflict, they are much the most to be dreaded. They never attack till after they have alarmed the object of their fears, and on account of this conceived magnanimity of character, the Indians very seldom destroy them. Indeed, so much do they esteem them for this trait, that I have known several instances in which the occupants of a wigwam have temporarily resigned its use, without fear or molestation, to one of these visitants who had given due notice of his arrival. The regard the Indians have for this snake has been illiberally construed into an idolatrous veneration; which is far from being the case. Bravery, generosity, and magnanimity, form the most important traits in the character of the warrior; and the practice of these qualities is much more strictly inculcated in early life and observed in maturer years by them, than are the commands of the Decalogue by the respective sects which profess to believe in and obey them. It is from impressions arising from these sources, that the Indian, surrounded by his most bitter enemies, and the implements of cruel and vindictive torture, derives his consolation, and is enabled, when put to the most severe trials and excruciating pains, to bear them without complaint; nay more, to scorn the feeble efforts of his enemies to make him swerve from this character, and to despise death unequivocally, approaching in its most terrific form. The same impressions teach him to respect those who also possess them, even though such should be his most implacable and deadly foes. Hence is derived the respect they show the rattle-snake; whose character, as before observed, they have construed into a resemblance to these qualities; and I can assure my readers, as far as my knowledge extends, whatever other people and nations may do, that the Indians adore, and worship only the Great Spirit.

Mr. Hunter now passed 'several moons' in roving along the banks of a number of small streams which flow into the White River: but, one morning, his solitude was interrupted by the appearance of a party of white people, who proved to be French, and one of whom, named Levous, addressed him in the Osage language. This party availed themselves of his knowledge of the country and the resorts of game, and succeeded in persuading him to accompany them to a place called 'Flees' settlement; where he acquired a knowledge of many English words, and for the first time in his life arrayed himself (to his great restraint and uneasiness) in the costume of the whites. The people of this settlement were removed
only

only a small degree above the Indians themselves: but the author observes, with the sagacity which marks all his reflections on human nature, that this very circumstance had a great effect in reconciling him to the change which he was about to experience. If, on his first emerging from the savage circle of Indian life, he had at once been flung within the polished zone of refined society, without passing through the intermediate degrees of civilization, it is extremely probable that he would have been disgusted with the change; and instead of participating, as he now does, in the pleasures of polished and scientific society, he might have been 'thrown back,' to use his own expression, 'with self-gratulation, to his former unclaimed state of being.'

His first important mercantile transaction with the Whites was not calculated to efface the impression so carefully stamped on his mind by the Indians. Seduced by the winning manners of a person named Davis, he sold pelts to this individual for six hundred and fifty dollars: but the villain took advantage of his ignorance, and contrived to deceive him in the payment by paper so entirely, that he in fact received no more than about twenty-eight dollars. By the advice of several most respectable persons, who were desirous to repress his wandering disposition, he had intended to invest the proceeds of his furs and pelts in land, and turn his attention to agriculture or some other useful pursuit: but, disgusted with this fraud, he now resolved to break away from the whites, in whom he saw nothing but perfidiousness, and return to his old tribe, the Kansas. In the course of his journey, however, some circumstances occurred which induced him to alter his intention, and he engaged himself with two young men, named Tibbs and Warren, in the capacity of boatman with some Kentuckians who were short of help, and went down the Mississippi to New Orleans. Here was another and more forward step into civilized life: here new scenes presented themselves, to excite at once admiration and disgust:—the size, arrangement, and comparative elegance of the houses, the number and magnitude of the ships, the multitude of people, and the bustle of business, awakened the former;—while the coarse revelry and debauchery of boatmen, sailors, and black and white wenchess, far lower in the scale of moral and independent beings than the Indians whom he had left, caused him, he says, 'to sigh for the woody retreats and uncontaminated manners of the tawny children of the wilderness.'

Leaving New Orleans, he returned through the Cherokee and Choctaw nations to Kentucky, and thence to Cape Girardeau, where he placed himself in a school to learn the English language. Several trading expeditions up and down the

Mississippi were conducted with great success, but every interval between the trading seasons was indefatigably employed in study. Under various tutors, he learned reading, writing, and arithmetic; his mind was gradually more disciplined: he obtained access to some respectable libraries, and became passionately fond of literary pursuits.

But besides my desire to acquire a professional knowledge, my ardent imagination depicted to me all the beauties that had been unveiled in the intellectual world. From the ready proficiency I had made, I thought of nothing less than the subjugation of the empires of science and literature, and when this had been accomplished, to have penetrated into unexplored regions in search of new truths.

With my mind thus filled with lofty expectations; ignorant of the world, of my own powers, and the vanity of the attempts I contemplated; unknown to a single human being, with whom I could claim kindred, except from common origin; and even indebted to circumstance for a name, in the fall of 1821 I crossed the Alleghany mountains, and as it were commenced a new existence. By this, however, I intend no local reflection, for wherever I visited, hospitality and friendship have been inmates, and often united in the silent though expressive language of the heart, "Thou art my brother." In truth, the kindness and respectful attention I have received since I left the Indians, from all classes of people with which I became acquainted, have been of a nature calculated to inspire and fill my soul with gratitude and respect; and that I may merit their continuance will be the high ambition and constant endeavour of my future life.

Impressed with the persuasion that our readers will feel some interest in a short account of the manners and customs of some of the Western Indians, we propose to resume the notice of this volume in another number.

[To be continued.]

ART. III. *Dix Années d'Exil; ou, Mémoires de l'Époque la plus intéressante de la Vie de Madame de Staël, écrites par elle-même dans les Années 1810 à 1818: publiées d'après le Manuscrit original, par son Fils; avec des Mélanges et Poésies inédites.* 8vo. pp. 422. 12s. Boards. Treuttel and Co., London.

Ten Years' Exile; or, Memoirs of that interesting Period of the Life of the Baroness de Staël-Holstein, written by Herself, during the Years 1810, 1811, 1812, and 1813, and now first published from the original Manuscript, by her Son. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 434. 12s. Boards. Treuttel and Co.

ART. IV. *Théâtre inédit de Madame de Staël, publié par son Fils.* 8vo. pp. 410. 12s. Boards. Treuttel & Co.

WE have here two more volumes of the collective works of Madame de Staël, which we announced in a late Appendix, (vol. xcvi.) and an English translation of the one which is most interesting.

In

In 1802, M. Necker addressed to Bonaparte a turgid pamphlet, intitled *Last Views of Politics and Finance*, which some persons affected to consider as preparatory not merely of a political coalition, but of a matrimonial alliance, between the families; and probably, if Madame de Staël had become empress of the interior, and been intrusted with the management of the Parisian House of Commons, while her husband was routing the Austrians beyond the Alps, France might have been governed with greater popularity and liberality, and more permanent success. No such connection, however, occurred to the thoughts or the inclinations of Bonaparte, between whom and the lady much hostility but very little love seems to have prevailed; and with an inveterate dislike of him which she every where expresses, a certain smarting feeling, not unlike feminine pique, seems also to be mixed, giving an activity and animation to her hostility which the temper of her father's letter did not announce. It is true that the unlimited character of Bonaparte's power was not at first apparent; and that, in proportion as he asserted a despotic authority, the jealousy of freedom was likely to be roused: yet justice is certainly not rendered by Madame de Staël to Napoleon's force of mind, civil as well as military. She takes singular pains to deprive him of the praise of magnanimity, and comments on all his actions with more of the bitterness of a partisan than the equity of an historian. She gained, however, a sort of victory over his reputation, and perhaps contributed to withhold from him, at the last, that co-operation of the liberal party which might have excited the French people, as one man, to repel the allies from the territory of France. The cause of freedom in the abstract may thus have been served: but the French patriot may be permitted to doubt whether it was not a greater evil to suspend, for a time, the independence than the liberty of his country. It is not that part of the 'Ten Years' Exile' which records the fratricidal persecutions inflicted by the agents of Imperial police on Madame de Staël, which constitutes the most valuable contribution in this volume: the preference being decidedly due to the relation of her tour in Russia. In this narrative she depicts the features of the country, and the manners of the nation, with that distinct fidelity, that delicacy of appreciation, and that ingenious and eloquent felicity of diction, which give to her work on Germany so high a rank among books of travels. From this portion, therefore, we shall indulge in several extracts.

The Russians never pass a church without making the sign of the cross, and their long beards add greatly to the religious expression.

Rév. Nov. 1823.

REV. NOV. 1823.

pression of their physiognomy. They generally wear a large blue robe, fastened round the waist by a scarlet band: the dresses of the women have also something Asiatic in them; and one remarks that taste for lively colours which we derive from the East, where the sun is so beautiful, that one likes to make his éclat more conspicuous by the objects which he shines upon. I speedily contracted such a partiality to these oriental dresses, that I could not bear to see Russians dressed like other Europeans; they seemed to me then entering into that great regularity of the despotism of Napoleon, which first makes all nations a present of the conscription, then of the war-taxes, and, lastly, of the God Napoleon, in order to govern in the same manner nations of totally different characters. —

The Greek religion is necessarily less intolerant than the Roman Catholic; for being itself reproached as a schism, it can hardly complain of heretics; all religions therefore are admitted into Russia, and from the borders of the Don to those of the Neva the fraternity of country unites men, even though their theological opinions may separate them. The Greek priests are allowed to marry, and scarcely any gentleman embraces this profession: it follows that the clergy has very little political ascendancy; it acts upon the people, but it is very submissive to the emperor.

The ceremonies of the Greek worship are at least as beautiful as those of the Catholics; the church-music is heavenly; every thing in this worship leads to meditation; it has something of poetry and feeling about it, but it appears better adapted to captivate the imagination than to regulate the conduct. When the priest comes out of the sanctuary, in which he remains shut up while he communicates, you would say that you saw the gates of light opening; the cloud of incense which surrounds him, the gold and silver, and precious stones, which glitter on his robes and in the church, seem to come from countries where the sun is an object of adoration. The devout sentiments which are inspired by Gothic architecture in Germany, France, and England, cannot be at all compared with the effect of the Greek churches; they rather remind us of the minarets of the Turks and Arabs than of our churches. As little must we expect to find, as in Italy, the splendor of the fine arts; their most remarkable ornaments are virgins and saints crowned with rubies and diamonds. Magnificence is the character of every thing one sees in Russia; neither the genius of man nor the gifts of nature constitute its beauties.

The ceremonies of marriage, of baptism, and of burial, are noble and affecting; we find in them some ancient customs of Grecian idolatry, but only those which, having no connection with doctrine, can add to the impression of the three great scenes of life, birth, marriage, and death. The Russian peasants still continue the custom of addressing the dead, previous to a final separation from his remains. Why is it, say they, that thou hast abandoned us? Wert thou, then unhappy on this earth? Was not

not thy wife fair and good? Why therefore hast thou left her? The dead replies not, but the value of existence is thus proclaimed in the presence of those who still preserve it.

The description of Moscow also merits selection.

Gilded cupolas announced Moscow from afar; however, as the surrounding country is only a plain, as well as the whole of Russia, you may arrive in that great city without being struck with its extent. It has been well said by some one, that Moscow was rather a province than a city. In fact, you there see huts, houses, palaces, a bazar as in the East, churches, public buildings, pieces of water, woods and parks. The variety of manners, and of the nations of which Russia is composed, are all exhibited in this immense residence. Will you, I was asked, buy some Cashmere shawls in the Tartar quarter? Have you seen the Chinese town? Asia and Europe are found united in this immense city. There is more liberty enjoyed in it than at Petersburg, where the court necessarily exercises great influence. The great nobility settled at Moscow were not ambitious of places; but they proved their patriotism by munificent gifts to the state, either for public establishments during peace, or as aids during the war. The colossal fortunes of the great Russian nobility are employed in making collections of all kinds, and in enterprises of which the Arabian Nights have given the models; these fortunes are also frequently lost by the unbridled passions of their possessors. —

As soon as a Russian becomes a soldier, his beard is cut off, and from that moment he is free. A desire was felt that all those who might have served in the militia should also be considered as free: but in that case the nation would have been entirely so, for it rose almost *en masse*. Let us hope that this so much desired emancipation may be effected without violence: but in the mean time one would wish to have the beards preserved, so much strength and dignity do they add to the physiognomy. — Their churches bear the mark of that taste for luxury which they have from Asia: you see in them only ornaments of gold, and silver, and rubies. I was told that a Russian had proposed to form an alphabet with precious stones, and to write a Bible in that manner. He knew the best manner of interesting the imaginations of the Russians in what they read. This imagination, however, has not as yet manifested itself either in the fine arts or in poetry. They reach a certain point in all things very quickly, and do not go beyond that. Impulse makes them take the first steps: but the second belong to reflection, and these Russians, who have nothing in common with the people of the North, are as yet very little capable of meditation.

Several of the palaces of Moscow are of wood, in order that they may be built quicker, and that the natural inconstancy of the nation, in every thing unconnected with country or religion, may be satisfied by an easy change of residence. Several of these fine edifices have been constructed for an entertainment; they were destined to add to the eclat of a day, and the rich manner

in which they were decorated has made them last up to this period of universal destruction. A great number of houses are painted green, yellow, or rose color, and are sculptured in detail like dessert ornaments.

The citadel of the Kremlin, in which the emperors of Russia defended themselves against the Tartars, is surrounded by a high wall, embattled and flanked with turrets, which, by their odd shapes, remind one of a Turkish minaret rather than a fortress, like those of the west of Europe. But although the external character of the buildings of the city be oriental, the impression of Christianity was found in that multitude of churches so much venerated, and which attracted your notice at every step. One was reminded of Rome in seeing Moscow; certainly not from the monuments being of the same style, but because the mixture of solitary country and magnificent palaces, the grandeur of the city and the infinite number of its churches, give the Asiatic Rome some points of resemblance to the European Rome.

With Petersburg we will conclude our extracts.

From Novogorod to Petersburg, you see scarcely any thing but marshes, and you arrive at one of the finest cities in the world, as if, with a magic wand, an enchanter had made all the wonders of Europe and Asia start up from the middle of the deserts. The foundation of Petersburg offers the greatest proof of that ardor of Russian will, which recognizes nothing as impossible; every thing in the environs is humble; the city is built upon a marsh, and even the marble rests on piles; but you forget, when looking at these superb edifices, their frail foundations, and cannot help meditating on the miracle of so fine a city being built in so short a time. This people, which must always be described by contrasts, possesses an unheard of perseverance in its struggles with nature or with hostile armies. Necessity always found the Russians patient and invincible, but in the ordinary course of life they are very unsteady. The same men, the same masters, do not long inspire them with enthusiasm; reflection alone cannot guarantee the duration of feelings and opinions in the habitual quiet of life, and the Russians, like all people subject to despotism, are more capable of dissimulation than reflection.

Just facing the house which I inhabited at Petersburg was the statue of Peter I.; he is represented on horseback climbing a steep mountain, in the midst of serpents who try to stop the progress of his horse. These serpents, it is true, are put there to support the immense weight of the horse and his rider; but the idea is not a happy one: for in fact it is not envy which a sovereign can have to dread; neither are his adulators his enemies; and Peter I. especially had nothing to fear during his life, but from Russians who regretted the ancient customs of their country. The admiration of him, however, which is still preserved, is the best proof of the good he did to Russia: for despots have no flatterers a hundred years after their death. On the pedestal of the statue is written, *To Peter the First, Catherine the Second.*

This

This simple, yet proud, inscription has the merit of truth. These two great monarchs have elevated the Russian pride to the highest pitch; and to teach a nation to regard itself as invincible is to make it such, at least within its own territory: for conquest is a chance which probably depends more upon the faults of the vanquished than upon the genius of the victor.

It is said, and properly, that you cannot, at Petersburg, say of a woman, that she is as old as the streets, the streets themselves are so modern. The buildings still possess a dazzling whiteness, and at night when they are lighted by the moon, they look like large white phantoms regarding, immoveable, the course of the Neva. I know not what there is particularly beautiful in this river, but the waves of no other I had yet seen ever appeared to me so limpid. A succession of granite quays, thirty versts in length, borders its course, and this magnificent labour of man is worthy of the transparent water which it adorns. Had Peter I. directed similar undertakings towards the south of his empire, he would not have obtained what he wished, a navy; but he would perhaps have better conformed to the character of his nation. The Russian inhabitants of Petersburg have the look of a people of the South condemned to live in the North, and making every effort to struggle with a climate at variance with their nature. The inhabitants of the North are generally very indolent, and dread the cold, precisely because *he* is their daily enemy. The lower classes of the Russians have none of these habits; the coachmen wait for ten hours at the gate, during winter, without complaining; they sleep upon the snow, under their carriage, and transport the manners of the Lazzaroni of Naples to the sixtieth degree of latitude. You may see them lying on the steps of staircases, like the Germans in their down; sometimes they sleep standing, with their head reclined against the wall. By turns indolent and impetuous, they give themselves up alternately to sleep, or to the most fatiguing employments. Some of them get drunk, in which they differ from the people of the South, who are very sober; but the Russians are so also, and to an extent hardly credible, when the difficulties of war require it.

The great Russian noblemen also show, in their way, the tastes of inhabitants of the South. You must go and see the different country-houses which they have built in the middle of an island formed by the Neva, in the centre of Petersburg. The plants of the South, the perfumes of the East, and the divans of Asia, embellish these residences. By immense hot-houses, in which the fruits of all countries are ripened, an artificial climate is created. The possessors of these palaces endeavour not to lose the least ray of sun while he appears on their horizon; they treat him like a friend who is about to take his departure, whom they have known formerly in a more fortunate country.

The day after my arrival, I went to dine with one of the most considerable merchants of the city, who exercised hospitality *à la Russe*; that is to say, he placed a flag on the top of his house to signify that he dined at home, and this invitation was sufficient

for all his friends. He made us dine in the open air, so much pleasure was felt from these poor days of summer, of which a few yet remained, to which we should have scarcely given the name in the south of Europe. The garden was very agreeable; it was embellished with trees and flowers; but at four paces from the house the deserts and the marshes were again to be seen. In the environs of Petersburg, nature has the look of an enemy who resumes his advantages, when man ceases for a moment to struggle with him.

The next morning I repaired to the church of Our Lady of Casan, built by Paul I. on the model of St. Peter's at Rome. The interior of this church, decorated with a great number of columns of granite, is exceedingly beautiful; but the building itself displeases, precisely because it reminds us of St. Peter's; and because it differs from it so much the more, from the mere wish of imitation. It is impossible to create in two years what cost the labour of a century to the first artists of the universe. The Russians would by rapidity escape from time as they do from space: but time only preserves what it has founded, and the fine arts, of which inspiration seems the first source, cannot nevertheless dispense with reflection.

From Our Lady of Casan I went to the convent of St. Alexander Newski, a place consecrated to one of the sovereigns of Russia, who extended his conquests to the borders of the Neva. The Empress Elizabeth, daughter of Peter I., had a silver coffin made for him, upon which it is customary to put a piece of money, as a pledge of the vow which is recommended to the saint. The tomb of Suwarow is in this convent of Alexander Newski, but his name is its only decoration; it is enough for him, but not for the Russians, to whom he rendered such important services. This nation, however, is so thoroughly military, that lofty achievements of that description excite less astonishment in it than other nations. The greatest families of Russia have erected tombs to their relatives in the cemetery which belongs to the church of Newski, but none of these monuments are worthy of remark; they are not beautiful, regarded as objects of art, and no grand idea there strikes the imagination. It is certain that the idea of death produces little effect on the Russians; whether it is from courage, or from the inconstancy of their impressions, long regrets are hardly in their character; they are more susceptible of superstition than emotion: superstition attaches to this life, and religion to another; superstition is allied to fatality, and religion to virtue; it is from the vivacity of earthly desires that we become superstitious, and it is, on the contrary, by the sacrifice of these same desires that we are religious.

Thus, in a small compass, are depicted the striking features of a country which is daily becoming more important to the study of mankind, because it involves the destiny not only of the included but of the surrounding nations. In proportion as a spirit of good sense and humanity can be engrafted on
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its internal instruction, will it be safe for mankind to let this infant Hercules grow up, unopposed by any attempt to paralyze his formidable force. It is not, however, without weak sides. The armies of Russia are ill paid; the officers are intelligent, and frequently foreigners; and there is reason to believe that, by internal partition, this colossal force might be crumbled into separate sovereignties of safe dimensions.

To the French volume containing the 'Ten Years' Exile,' but not to the English translation*, are appended various *Mélanges*, or miscellanies; viz. an Eulogy on Guibert, the politician, whom M. Necker had recommended to the French court as Minister of War, but who died in 1789:—a pamphlet intitled "*By what Signs may be recognized the Opinion of the Majority?*"—a Preface to the Letters of the *Princes de Ligne*:—articles inserted in the "*Universal Biography*!"—Preface to the Translation of an English Pamphlet on the Abolition of the Slave Trade, with a Peroration addressed to the Sovereigns assembled at Paris:—Essay on the Spirit of Translation:—various Poems, chiefly translated from the German, but among them occur our Prior's "*Henry and Emma*," and Bowles's *Elegy on the Bristol Waters*. Perhaps the most interesting at this moment may be Schiller's *Triumph of the Greeks*; and we are sorry that it is too long for us to transplant it into our pages.

The remaining volume contains the dramatic works of Madame de Staël, composed for the amusement of her own household, the members of which took a pleasure in "private theatricals." These pieces are intitled, *Hagar*, *Genevieve*, the *Shunamite*, *Captain Kernadec*, *Signora Fantastici*, *Le Mannequin*, *Sapho*, *Jane Gray*, and *Sophie*. No one of them appears to us a master-piece. *Hagar* and the *Shunamite* are sacred dramas; the situations in both are similar; the recovery of a sick child is in each the main point of interest; and probably a family-occurrence of the kind suggested the two compositions. Mrs. Hannah More may read them without envy. *Genevieve* is a Catholic legend, only tolerably dramatized. *Captain Kernadec* is a comedy, which may paint fairly the peculiarities and boastings of a French sea-officer, but which excites no strong interest. *La Signora Fantastici* introduces an English lady, married to a German nobleman, and ridicules her affected impatience of his habit of tobacco-smoking: as in the preceding piece the same tolerance of a pipe is inculcated by the authoress, probably in order to

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reconcile her daughters to the habits of M. Schlegel. The *Mannikin* is an improbable story of a gentleman who was induced to make an offer of marriage to a dressed up doll, for whom other persons are the interpreters. *Sappho* may be worthy of the writer of "Corinna," but has nothing Greek in its character. *Jane Gray* is the best of these dramas, and is by no means a mere translation from our Rowe, several other persons being introduced; yet the tragedy of that author has evidently been consulted. The speeches are far too long and declamatory for the English taste, but passages of affecting sublimity occur. *Sophie* is a kind of serious comedy, in which the passion of a married man for a woman who is not his wife is made the object of interest; and this play is worthy of the author of "Delphine," the situations in which it frequently repeats and recalls, — perhaps too frequently.

On the whole, it is as a traveller and a politician that Madame de Staël displays her eloquence to most advantage. The exterior of nature and the tendencies of society she can delineate with beautiful accuracy, and appreciate with sagacious precision: — but that individual penetration, that versatile plasticity, that internal sympathy, that transitive intuition, that voluntary metempsychosis, which would have enabled her to put herself in the place of another, and to see and feel with *alien senses*, — in a word, the dramatic instinct, — was not bestowed on her; and from the want of it all her poetry, and especially that which is composed in dialogues, takes but feeble hold of the feelings. The eloquence which plays round the head comes not always to the heart.

ART. V. *Thoughts, chiefly on Serious Subjects*; with Remarks on "Lacon." By W. Danby, Esq., of Swinton Park, Yorkshire. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

WE noticed "*Lacon*," with merited approbation, on its appearance before the public. (Vol. xciii. p. 441.) The present is a work which bears a strong resemblance to it, and the general remarks which we made on it are applicable to these volumes. Most resemblances, however, are accompanied by certain diversities either of complexion or feature, which are sufficiently discriminative of individual expression; and so it is here. "*Lacon*" is pithy, antithetic, and sometimes paradoxical. The author moralizes with the quaintness of Jacques, is full of matter, is satirical and ingenious, and his maxims are always pointed, though not always just. Mr. Danby is more dif-

disparage, and disdains those epigrammatic tricks of style, for so they may be called, in which Lacon indulges. He is never satirical, but piety breathes in every line, shewing reverence towards God and good will towards man. His meditations, chiefly religious and metaphysical, are those of a person who is evidently in the daily and hourly custom of watching and examining the workings of his own mind: — a custom surely of unspeakable importance, and which cannot be too earnestly enforced on young people. Is it not true that half of the errors and almost all the follies, that we commit, spring from want of attention, — from not accustoming ourselves to look through the glass of the mind while its busy hive of thoughts are at work? Passion, prejudice, self-interest, and the dominion of fashion, are perpetually urging us on to foolish or to vicious actions. What holds the check-rein? *Religion*, says the divine. The Syrians of old wore suspended round their necks the magical word *Abracadabra*, — the name of one of their deities, — as an antidote against agues, fevers, and other diseases. Was this religion? How many living Syrians are there? How many among us are there, who “profess and call themselves Christians,” because they entertain some blind and barren belief in certain mysterious and unintelligible dogmas, or creeds, which have issued from the synods and councils of fallible mortals? These dogmas and creeds are worn round the necks of such Christians as an antidote against the allurements of vice, with about as much effect as the *Abracadabra* of the Syrians! — “*E cælo descendit — γωαθι σεαυτοῖς.*” but how should a man know himself if he does not study himself? And how can he study himself but by attentively examining the structure of his own mind, and by recording its past operations in order to regulate its future and immediate acts?

We recommended “Lacon” for the sofa rather than the shelf; and so do we recommend the volumes before us. He who reads them may not always agree with Mr. Danby’s metaphysical abstractions, but he will rise improved by his moral instructions. — In choosing extracts, it would puzzle us to make a selection: but we shall take two or three, at random.

What has happened, was to happen; this perhaps may be ranked among the “primary truths,” of which Dr. Oswald speaks in his very sensible work, “An Appeal to Common Sense.” It was probably the instinctive (if I may use the term) sense of this, that made the ancients suppose an authority which they called “Fate,” the “Book” of which their Jupiter was obliged to refer to, whenever he wanted to know the events that were to happen. The same idea (or much the same) seems to be entertained by those philosophers in modern times, who attribute the course of events in

in this world to necessity. The same internal conviction, that there is something which controuls and directs the free agency of man, and the difficulty of referring it to the will of a superior Being, consistently with man's exercise of his free agency, appears to make us often use the term *chance*, when we speak of what is to happen; though, indeed, it may rather spring from the consciousness of our not being able either to direct or foresee fortuitous events, nor to see any other direction of them: all, however, must be a chain of causes and effects. All these difficulties must arise from the nature and limits of our ideas and knowledge: we cannot conceive how one being foresees and controuls the actions of another, leaving to him at the same time the freedom of choice and agency; and, apparently to elude the difficulty, we have recourse to a mere nonentity, an abstraction from all being whatever; not considering that in using the terms Fate, Necessity, or Chance, we still suppose an overruling agency, only changing the name of the agent. We cannot, therefore, help referring to some power that foresees and directs the course of events, and the consequence of human actions, independently of the will and knowledge of man. This power must reside in, and be exercised by, the Supreme Being. Omniscient as he is, he must foresee our actions and their consequences: omnipotent as he is, he must direct them as he thinks fit. To suppose in him a knowledge of human actions, without any participation in, or influence over them, would be an evident absurdity; for to suppose that in the relation between God and man, between the Creator and his creature, there should be a possession of Almighty power, with all the attributes accompanying it, but without any exercise of it or them, is surely the highest absurdity. Respecting the attributes of God, little as we can comprehend the manner in which they display themselves, or how they influence each other, we are equally bound to believe (for to deny it would be as absurd as it would be impious) in his possession of them, each in perfection, each inviolable, and all such as are necessary to constitute (if the word may be used) a perfect being. — (P. 22.)

Orlando, in "As you Like it," answers Jacques's proposal to him to rail against the rest of mankind, by saying that he would only "rail against himself, in whom he knew most faults." And this must probably be the case of every man, and for this reason, that he must know himself (if he reflects at all) better than he can know any one else. So just is Shakspeare to nature and to truth!

"I will rail only on myself, in whom I know most faults," — is the answer of a sincere and reasonable man, to a self-conceited, or at least a whimsical, misanthropist. Whim indeed may (and probably does) imply self-conceit; but must we not shew some indulgence to human eccentricities, because they require it, or rather because we have no right to be severe upon them? Orlando's answer to Jacques is, I believe, an answer to this too. Discrimination, however, must be made between different characters, but with caution and diffidence: what says St. Paul? "Let your moder-

moderation be known to all men;" — not the moderation of policy, but of sincerity and self-examination.

How much of the latter do we want! But in saying "we," do I not fall myself under the lash of Orlando's reproof? Do I not seek to lessen my own faults, by generalising them? How shall we escape this "treachery" of the heart? What? "we" again? — (P. 117.)

"A wit's a feather, and a chief's a rod;

An honest man's the noblest work of God."

These lines of Pope have been criticised, as being a sacrifice or a comparative depreciation of those endowments in which he himself excelled, and which may be thought to constitute the highest excellence of man's nature, in the preference given to a quality which may be possessed by men of the meanest abilities. But it should be considered, that to be an honest man, in the fullest sense of the term (in which it is fair to suppose that Pope meant it) implies more than a mere exemption from the disposition to rob or cheat; that the aversion from doing a dishonest action of any kind requires an assemblage of qualities to secure it, beyond what could be done by mere pride, or the fear of shame. These latter may be consistent enough with a disposition to cheat the world, or ourselves: to be perfectly honest and just to both, requires the highest degree of moral excellence, and in such a measure as can only be filled by religion. Let a man be as generous, kind, and amiable in his manners as he will, he may conceal within himself some qualities which, though the world may overlook or pardon them for the sake of his social merits, may not meet with an equal acquittal in the sight of Heaven. If any tribunal on earth can decide this, it must be that of his own conscience. In the judgment of the world, too, we may observe the distinction made between what induces us to say, "I believe that man is honest," and "I believe that is an honest man." The latter is far more comprehensive and expressive than the former, and such is probably the "honest man" that was pointed at by Pope. (P. 167.)

We give one more:

What beauty there is in figurative expression! "Thy sun shall no more go down, neither shall thy moon withdraw itself; for the Lord shall be thine everlasting light, and the days of thy mourning shall be ended." — "The Sun of Righteousness shall rise with healing in his wings." How strongly do these passages address themselves to the imagination and the feelings! Not meant to be understood literally, but allusively to the effects which the sensible objects mentioned in them have upon our minds, they refer us to a substitute for those objects which will have the same effect in an infinitely higher degree, and without being subject to the imperfections which accompany them; that substitute being no less than the Source from which all those effects flow. How naturally do our minds look up to this Source ("through nature to nature's God") with the desire and the hope of future powers of actually contemplating it! Let not this be mistaken for the language of enthusiasm: it is the natural expression of the feelings

ings of every mind in which they are unperverted, and which, in meditating on what passes within itself, can trace those feelings to its proper source.

'So the "Night Thoughts,"

' "Man but dives in death,
Dives from the sun in fairer day to rise."

'And do we not hope this? And can any mind that studies its own real happiness, and its most natural and most ardent wishes, dispense with the indulgence of that hope? True it is, indeed, that the objects of sense, and the impulse of our passions, are continually diverting us from these more abstracted contemplations; to which, however, the mind soon returns, when left to its own serious reflections.' (P. 129.)

'What beauty there is in figurative expression!' Indeed there is; and how powerful is its effect on the mind! "The tree doth not withdraw her shade, even from the wood-cutter." This is a maxim from the Vedams of the Hindoos, and can any thing surpass it in force and beauty? — "The moon doth not withhold her light even from the chandala." This is another maxim, taken from the Institutes of Menu*, reminding us of a reflection infinitely more beautiful, in a moral sense, taken from the Institutes of Christ; — "He causeth his sun to shine and his rain to fall, upon the just and upon the unjust." Our Saviour knew of no chandalas.

"Giving no pain to any creature," says the son of Brahmá, "let a man collect virtue by degrees for the sake of acquiring a companion to the next world, as the white ant by degrees builds her nest. For in his passage to the next world, neither his father, nor his mother, nor his wife, nor his son, nor his kinsman, will remain in his company. His virtue alone will adhere to him. Single is each man born; single he dies; single he receives the reward, of his good, and single the punishment of his evil deeds. When he leaves his corse, like a log of wood or a lump of clay on the ground, his kindred retire, with averted faces — but his virtue accompanies his soul! Continually, therefore, by degrees, let him collect virtue, for the sake of securing an inseparable companion; since with virtue for his guide, he will traverse a gloom — how hard to be traversed!"†

Once again, 'what beauty there is in figurative expression!' and, from the scattered specimens of Mr. Danby's critical taste and acumen, we regret that he has not more frequently displayed them. — May we take the liberty of hinting, however, that it is almost profanation to quote Horace as Smart translated him, viz. as if he were a prose-writer, instead of the most fascinating and delightful poet that ever lived?

* See Sir William Jones's translation.

† Institutes of Menu, ch. iv. § 238, &c.

Art. VI. *High-ways and By-ways*; or, *Tales of the Roadside*, picked up in the French Provinces. By a Walking Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 432. 13s. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

THE production of an excentric but cultivated mind is generally interesting, and such is the volume here presented to us. Its author is in the truest acceptation of the word—a sentimental traveller; and the four tales which he has picked up on the road-side, though of different degrees of merit, will help to cheer the heavy hours of the large and perhaps daily increasing class of those who have nothing to do. From these favorable sentiments, however, we must except the preface; which seems to us a loose, rambling, and dithyrambic collection of sentences, wholly “innocent of sense;” an avenue which leads to nothing; and intended, we presume, as an enigma, to torture the patience or to baffle the ingenuity of those who might attempt to find out its meaning. The reader of the following passage must exclaim “*Dans son, non Edipus.*”

“A crusty opponent might say that this is all labour in vain, — tell me that most men travel merely to talk of it, or that “*Voyager est un triste plaisir,*” — cite the Scotch proverb, “Sen’ a fool to France, and he’ll come back a fool,” — quote, gravely, if he will,

‘ Dans maint auteur, de science profonde,
J’ai lu qu’on perd à trop courir le monde —

and add to these authorities, that if the object is knowledge, it may be had at home; that the external features of all countries pretty nearly resemble one another; that towns and villages are composed of the same kind of materials; and that man himself is every where the same, a two-legged animal without feathers. Why then go out of our way to explore the outward show of things, or even the nooks and crevices of human nature?

‘Such reasoner would be quickly yelped at by the open-mouthed pack, which sweeps through foreign scenes, barking or baying at men or the moon; and he would be stung by the drones who hum, and buzz, and flutter over all, but bring back not one drop of honey to the hive.

‘Yet there is some justness in the cavil of my cynic. Nature has made all things of the same stuff, and distributed them in nearly the same proportions. Man, the great master-piece, is every where the same: five to six feet in height, and seventy years of life; four-limbed and two-handed; with five senses, thirty-four cerebral organs, and one, two, or more ideas — as it may be. Such is his common form and medium definition. A straggling monster may now and then shock us as less, or startle us as more than man; but the lover of miracle and marvel seeks in vain for a group of Cyclops, or a race of giants. The grosser works of the creation, too, are all confined within certain limits.

Climate,

Climate, indeed, is comparatively cold, or hot; but a fire or a pair of bellows can transport the mind, through the medium of the senses, from the frigid to the torrid zone, and *vice versa*. Un-sightly monsters, pillars, or even temples, may be brought to us by ships. We cannot, to be sure, carry off mountains or rivers; but, if we will be satisfied with miniature models, let us turn to our own romantic hills and lovely streams, and we shall only want a magnifying glass to show us all that nature holds of the sublime and beautiful.

The first tale, 'The Father's Curse,' we consider as beyond comparison the best. Yet no small portion of its charm is destroyed by the habit which the narrator is so prone to indulge, of going out of his way to pluck those sentimental flowerets and prettinesses of expression, which, though they remind us strongly of the French school of Bernardin St. Pierre and of Chateaubriand, are far behind the inimitable and original graces of Sterne. Writers of this class have no conscience, but much feeling, when they get hold of a living dog or a dead jack-ass; though all that real sensibility can feel, or real eloquence express, on such a theme, may have been said, or even better said, a hundred times before. We really did not bargain, at the commencement of an interesting story, for the following rhapsody:

'I had seen the Dordogne in the heart of those rugged hills — born in volcanic sources, nursed on beds of lava, and swathed with basaltic bands — a riotous little stream, hurrying on its passage with the waywardness of a noisy child. A little further I had fancied it to glide along in the quiet and smiling loveliness of female youth, through groups of gentle acclivities, of wild yet verdant aspect. Now, I paced its widely-separated banks, and marked it swelling into full-grown beauty, rolling its course with conscious dignity along congenial plains; while tufts of stately trees, converted by my imagination into enamoured lovers, wooed their liquid mistress with bent and graceful branches, which waived salutation, or sipped her passing sweets. A little more, thought I, and this proud beauty sinks into that sea, where all rivers are finally lost! — and I was just getting into a train of deep analogies, when I was roused by the flapping wings of a covey of partridges behind me. I turned, and saw my dog fixed steadily at a point at some distance. I cocked my gun, but the game had escaped me. Ranger came slowly forward with a surly and reproving look, such as many a musing sportsman has observed, when the faithful follower, who has done so well his duty, would tell you that you have neglected yours.

'In all my rambling I am accompanied by my dog; not that I despise the companionship of man — far from it. But where can we find a friend so like ourselves, with thoughts and feelings so moulded into ours, that he will think and talk, stand still, move forward,

forward, eat, drink, and sleep in perfect unison with us? This strict coincidence exists not between men; and without this, such a course as mine is better run alone. Pursuits there are, and pleasures, it is true, which two minds sufficiently congenial may soothingly follow together. Hours, nay, days entire, of social fellowship have fallen to my lot; and I look forward with hope to a renewal of such intercourse, when ripened thought shall have mellowed the young fruit of earlier associations. But to wander for months in foreign scenes: to mix with strange society, yet be not a stranger in it; to give the mind up to that reflective abandonment which likes to revel uncontrolled, you must have no companion but your dog. With him you have no ceremony to constrain you; and he, poor thing, is ready for your every mood. If you are gay, he frisks and capers; if sad, he trudges slowly on, and thinks, or seems to think, as deeply as yourself. When you eat, he has always a ready appetite; when out of the reach of food, he murmurs not. Lie down to sleep, he is your guardian; rise up when you will, you will find him freshly at your call.

The family of Le Vasseur consisted of several sons and daughters, and the two elder of the latter had grown up towards womanhood, were beautiful, pleasing, and accomplished, when a young man, the son of a neighbouring proprietor, returned from his regiment, then in Spain, severely wounded, and became an inmate of their house. He was elegant, well informed, and an excellent musician, but at heart a libertine. Eugenie, the eldest daughter, was lively and impassioned; and the young soldier and she soon became deeply enamoured of each other. Her principles were so loose, and her love so ardent, that she yielded an unhesitating assent to his unworthy offers; and, while the devoted parents encouraged what they regarded as an honorable passion, the evidence of the intercourse at last threatened to become manifest. Agnes, to whom her sister had confided the secret of the guilty commerce, and who strangely consented to be its depositary, though influenced in a great measure by the hope that St. Croix would feel the necessity of marrying Eugenie, had for some time expected the communication: but, when Eugenie, enraptured at the thought of becoming a mother, and convinced that her lover would be a sharer in her ecstasy, communicated to him the tidings, she was answered by the bitterest exclamations of reproach, and left in a state of insensibility on the floor of the garden arbour by her seducer.

When Agnes entered the bower, she found the wretched Eugenie stretched senseless on the ground. Shocked as she was, she uttered no scream, nor did she lose in useless lamentation the moments which were so precious for the recovery of the sufferer. She

She flew to the little brook which flowed through the garden, and the readiness of reflection supplied her with a resource which she wanted of common conveniences would have rendered unattainable to a mind of less self-command. She steeped her handkerchief in the stream, and ran back with it to the bower. She applied the plentiful moisture to her sister's temples, and had seen the happiness to see her revive. I must not dwell on the distressing portrait which the poor victim presented; nor could I heighten by description the pain of every sensitive heart which imagines the picture of her wretchedness. The first expression of her recovered reason was a piercing shriek on perceiving her sister where her inhuman lover had so lately stood. The memory of all that had passed rushed in agony upon her brain; and, with long-redeemed cries, she called upon the father of her child. Agnes endeavoured to pacify her, but in vain. She would not be restrained, and the sounds of her anguished voice soon reached the house, and pierced even the recesses of her father's study.

The first persons of the family who reached the spot were her two brothers, who had been preparing for their morning sports, and, armed with their guns, they rushed towards the bower. Their wild inquiries were quickly answered by the frantic confessions of Eugenie. Her overloaded heart seemed relieved by every burst of agonised reproach, heaped as unsparingly upon herself as on the cause of her suffering. Agnes would have interposed between the rash avowal of Eugenie and the fiery agitation of the youthful listeners. Her most judicious efforts were, however, uselessly exerted; for the exclamations of self-conviction were again and again repeated, and St. Croix as often accused of brutal villainy. The brothers, thus wrought upon, gave loose to their mutual fury. With one glance of indignant sympathy flung upon their sister, they rushed through the shrubbery, and were lost to the imploring gaze of Agnes, who, still kneeling on the ground, supported in her arms the victim of violence and exhaustion.

The servants and labourers now came in, and next the mother. To each one was the fatal secret openly developed; but, in the contemplation of him who followed them I pass over the effect produced on more common observers. Le Vasseur was the last who reached the arbour. The shrieks which had roused him from his retirement came more faintly repeated as he approached the spot; but the bewailing accents of his daughter forcibly caught his attention. The sounds of grief seldom proceeded from the voice of Eugenie. The penetrating mind of Le Vasseur quickly seized upon the truth. As he listened, the life-blood rushed upwards from his heart, and a suffocating impression of agony and anger for an instant seemed to threaten life itself. His eyes remained fixed and he not laid hold of a projecting tree, he felt that he must have fallen to the earth. It was some moments before he could recover himself sufficiently to move; and during this interval he heard enough, in the continued strain of self-accusation from

which he resolved to shake of doubt, and to arouse the entire energies of the agonised father.

Edith entered the antechamber. The paleness of united rage and sorrow overspread his face. He tottered feebly from the violence of his emotion, and large drops, rage-distilled, stood on his sternly-furrowed brow. The servants and labourers made way as he approached. His wife shrunk back, and Agnes sunk her head upon the bosom which she had been so long supporting. Eugénie alone seemed spell-bound by her father's withering gaze. Her eyes wildly glared upon him as he came slowly towards her, with uplifted hands clasped above his head. As he advanced he spoke not, but fixed his looks upon her. His eyes for a moment closed; his brows were knit more rigidly, his lips compressed together with determined energy, his hands trembled on high; and then, as if this fatal but fearful preparation had given his mind full strength, he spoke. "Listen, daughter of infamy! listen to the curse of him who disowns you for his child. I curse you in the moment of your anguish, and I pray that it may last with your life. I drive you from my heart and my home, and implore the heavens, that eternal misery may light upon your desolate path!"

St. Croix had already decided to repair the wrong which he had done, by marrying Eugénie, when, as he was returning towards the garden to impart his resolution, an encounter took place between him and her brothers. St. Croix was severely wounded, and Eugénie, sinking under her anguish, was carried to her chamber in the agony of a raging fever; but both having at length recovered, Le Vasseur, after severe internal conflicts, consented to their union. The marriage was solemnized; and St. Croix, having acquired considerable property by his father's death, left the army and became a country gentleman. Eugénie was the mother of three children, was restored to happiness, and her old acquaintances flocked round her with undiminished kindness: but she felt that her father's affection was gone for ever.

Le Vasseur, having lost in a great measure his fondness for his eldest daughter, seemed to turn with a tenfold affection to Agnes. She had always been his favourite child; and resembled him more than any of the others in all the better parts of his character. She was drawn still closer to him by his feeling towards her misery for she pitied him, knowing that he felt himself disgraced as well as afflicted; and though differing widely with him on the main point of Eugénie's guilt, she took care not to shock him by any avowal of her opinion on a subject upon which his was so decided. While lavishing every kindness that he had the means of bestowing to meet each want and wish of Agnes, decorating his house anew according to her taste; and forgetting the austerity of his character in the overflowing of his indulgence, Le Vasseur still neglected no opportunity of recurring with the whole weight

of his reasoning to the subject which gave rise to his present conduct. He was evidently dissatisfied with the part he had acted on that occasion. He saw that he had lost the finest opportunity of his life for leaving behind him the character of that unbending and implacable virtue, to establish which his whole life had been devoted. He felt himself little in comparison to what he had been; degraded in the eyes of those who had looked upon him as a paragon of republican firmness; and he was conscious that he had descended from the pedestal of his pride to mingle in the common ranks of every-day men.

The mortification which this caused him was much more powerful than any counterbalancing pleasure founded on the applause which he had obtained. He had seen so much evil produced in the world by the plastic characters of those who are thought the best, that he would have rather been an object of fear than of affection; and, unsatisfied at the late example of his weakness, he almost wished, at times, for an opportunity of redeeming his character by giving a proof of his severity.

But these last were fitting and unsettled thoughts: in his better moments he had none of them. They were the wayward errings of his artificial mind: his natural feelings revolted from them; and he was even sometimes, in the fulness of his heart, disposed to think that he had rather relieved his reputation from the guilt of harshness than loaded it with the stigma of weakness. "If, however," he used to exclaim, "if another instance should occur!" But he never could finish the sentence, nor allow his thoughts to dwell on the anticipation.

Party-spirit running high about this time, contending factions and passions poisoned domestic tranquillity not in the capital only but in the most remote provinces. Le Vasseur was a staunch revolutionist; and, during the short interval of the one hundred days which followed the return of Bonaparte from Elba, he fondly cherished the hope of restoring his favorite form of government. To these visionary projects, the restoration of the Bourbons soon put an end; but Le Vasseur rigidly excluded from his house every person who supported by word or deed the ancient dynasty. Not so Le Moix; whose house was open to men of all principles and passions, and often to those who had none. Agnes, who was a frequent visitor there, soon attracted the attentions of Young De Monigny, son of an emigrant who had lost by the Revolution all his property, and held an official situation of slight emolument in the adjacent town. He was a model of manners, conduct, and character; and the most deeply-rooted attachment was formed between them. Le Vasseur, however, was inexorable, and swore never to consent to the union of his daughter with a man whom he considered in common with all his party as an enemy; declaring that on the entire

fulfilment of her choice depended his ever again acknowledging her as his child. From this day, Agnes visibly pined away; but no entreaties on the part of St. Croix and Eugénie could shake the stern resolve of Le Vasseur. In the meanwhile, the forbidden intercourse continued; and her friends urged her, on reaching the age which authorized her by law, to join herself to her lover in defiance of so unjust a prohibition. She assented, and they were married in the presence of only St. Croix and Eugénie. It was a sad and joyless ceremony, and when it was concluded, the young couple retired to their home, — a wretched cottage, where 'misery seemed written on the walls,' and from which they excluded all visitors, even Madame Le Vasseur herself and her children. Such a seclusion appeared so mysterious to this lady, that she determined to gain admission even by stratagem. The rest of the story we give in the author's words:

Just four months had now elapsed from the day of Agnes's marriage; and her mother had for some weeks abandoned her, after repeated solicitations for admission. Her agitation on approaching the bleak and lonely habitation became extreme. She thought of her own home-comforts, and the comparative elegancies which surrounded Eugénie. She asked herself which of the sisters was most worthy; and the bitterness of self-answering recollections quite overpowered her. She wept aloud, and was led on unceasing, by the guidance of St. Croix, endeavouring to stifle the audible expression of her distress. As they came close to the house, the low murmuring of voices from within made them pause for a moment, and they saw, through the half-opened shutters of the little parlour-window, the hapless owners of this mansion of misery. They were seated at a coarse and rustic table; a solitary lamp, placed upon the chimney, threw its melancholy beam upon the wan and hollow countenances of Agnes and De Monigny. The former was busily employed at needle-work, and her husband, with looks of compassionate meaning, seemed striving to give her comfort.

Madame Le Vasseur could gaze no longer. She raised the latch of the door, — for no precautions close the houses of these remote and secluded parts: but if robbers did infect the country, there was little temptation for their attacks in the scanty possessions of De Monigny. The sudden opening of the door made him now start from his chair, and when he recognized the intruders a flush of anger rose upon his pallid cheek; but he suppressed his emotion and turned to Agnes, who, in the first movement of surprise, and unguarded affection, advanced to embrace her mother. But Madame Le Vasseur for a moment shrunk back. A thousand conflicting sensations rushed at once across her mind, for as her eye caught the self-betraying form of Agnes, she saw with a glance that she was in the most advanced state of pregnancy. The recollection of her situation came like lightning to the memory of

Agnes. She made an effort to fold her robe around her; and at the first astonished pang of Madame Le Vasseur subsided, and as she was hurrying forward to meet the proffered embrace of her daughter, the returning consciousness of the latter made her sink with empty arms into her chair.

The remainder of the interview may be better imagined than described. The astonished St. Croix hastened back to convey the unexpected news to Eugenie; while Madame Le Vasseur spent the remainder of the night in assurances of forgiveness, and many a common-place, though heartfelt condolence, quite lost on the despairing listener.

The dawning of a heavy morning brought no gleam of hope to the afflicted group, but it showed more plainly to the mother the ravages which a little time had made in her once beautiful and blooming child. Her anguish was almost insupportable; and she saw that she but added to the distress of Agnes, who seemed overpowered and bent down under the conviction that her father's course awaited his discovery of her situation. With this feeling she implored her mother to keep the secret from him, and to give her a chance of dying unbetrayed. She uttered no reproach against him, nor did she shelter her offence with the plea which his obstinate opposition might have given her, even when confessing to her mother, that the day of his resolute unkindness, on discovering her attachment, was that in which the despair of Monigny and herself led to the fatal forgetfulness of his duty, and the fall of her honour. But she now looked upon the past without pain, and mechanically made preparations for the future; while her whole powers of thought and feeling were concentrated in the dread of that malediction, which once riveted her to the earth, although launched against another.

Her mother, to quiet her fears, told her that she would be discreet; and, assuring her that her secret would be safe from her father, she left her somewhat more composed. On the return of Madame Le Vasseur to St. Croix's, however, she, in concert with them, agreed to make every thing known to her husband. They unanimously agreed, that much was to be expected from his natural tenderness upon his hearing the truth of Agnes's suffering, and from the strong affection towards her, which was best evinced by his wretchedness ever since the fatal hour in which he drove her from his bosom. Full of the most benevolent hopes, they hastened to his house; and without formal or settled plan, the intelligence burst from them, in an united disclosure, which none of them could have made individually, but which they trusted he could not thus withstand the force of.

Le Vasseur heard them in silence. A smile was curling his lip. They thought it incredulity, but it was despair! His hands trembled, his colour went and came, he sunk back in his chair, burst into a fit of loud hysterical laughter, and would have gone mad, had he not had relief in a passionate flood of tears. They were the first he had shed for many a day. When he came a little to himself he motioned to the door, and there was an awful dignity

uity in his gesture which commanded immediate obedience. They left him; and in less than ten minutes they saw a servant leave the courtyard on horseback, at full speed, with a letter in his hand.

With that wilful deception which the most desperate cabal cannot conquer, Madame Le Vasseur, Eugenie, and even St. Croix, felt convinced that the letter contained the pardon of Agnes. They proceeded once more to Le Vasseur's study, in half-assisted anxiety that their belief would be confirmed. They were admitted. Le Vasseur was sitting in his chair, calm and unimpassioned. They ardently inquired what were the contents of his letter. Suddenly starting up, with a look of phrensy, and a tone of fearful energy, he cried, "My curse!"

Some hours after Madame Le Vasseur had quitted Agnes in the morning, the effects of the sudden and long protracted agitation became apparent in the latter. She felt every symptom of approaching delivery, and her husband hastened off to the town, which was at some distance, where resided the physician, who, being in her confidence throughout, expected the summons. Hardly had De Monigny lost sight of his dwelling, when the servant bearing Le Vasseur's letter arrived. The ignorant girl who had the care of her mistress immediately handed her the letter; and Agnes, recognizing her father's writing, opened it with the eagerness of hope. She forgot for a moment her pains, and lost all sense of suffering in the magic of expectation. Her eye ran quickly over the few lines contained in the billet, when the horror-struck servant saw her sink back in the bed, uttering a piercing scream, the herald of a fit of violent convulsion. Shrieks of maniac wildness, the voice of mingled agony and delirium, burst loudly from her, and ceased but with one fierce and closing spasm, which, at one and the same moment, gave birth to a fine female child, and broke the heart of the ill-fated mother!

As De Monigny returned towards home, accompanied by the doctor, they heard the terrific accents. As they neared the house, the shriek was hushed; and when they entered, Agnes was quite dead. The distracted servants, who stood by her side, did not think of going out to meet the husband's approach; and as he rushed into the room, breathless and abrupt, such was the spectacle which met his sight.

The following evening Agnes was privately buried in the neighbouring cemetery, her hand, even in the grave, grasping the fatal letter which was the warrant of her death, and which had been in vain attempted to be taken from it. St. Croix and her younger brothers followed her to the grave. The eldest fled from his father's house, overwhelmed by the double shame which had fallen on his family, and the infatuated severity which had perpetuated its disgrace. Eugenie was dreadfully shocked on learning her sister's fate; but the fears were exaggerated of those who thought the intelligence would have endangered her safety.

The infant was alive and well at the time I heard these particulars, and had not to that day received a morsel of nourishment, except from the hands of its inconsolable father.

The 'Exile of the Landes' is also an interesting and pathetic story; but we think that it would have made a more powerful appeal to the heart, had it been narrated in simpler and more unstudied language. The other tales, 'The Duke of Henry IV.' and '*La Vilaine Tête*' deserve a similar character, and are illustrative of French manners and life. A few *Vers de Société* are added, of which the following are a sample:

SONG OF THE LANDES.

The moonlight, through the branching pines,
Floats o'er the sands with silver streak;
How like the chasten'd beam, that shines
Through dark-fringed lids on beauty's cheek,
When timid glances trembling steal
From thy bright eyes, mine own Cazille!

As o'er the desert-atream's smooth breast
The night-winds from the forest ahead
Light leaves to break the water's rest,
It vibrates in its deepest bed. —
So doth my thrilling bosom feel
Thy soft-breathed words, mine own Cazille!

I see thee not, but thou art here!
Even as heaven's lamp, obscured awhile,
Still lights the desert far and near,
Through sorrow's cloud thy mellow smile
Makes life's dull waste bright spots reveal,
And lights me on, mine own Cazille!

Part VII. *The Hermit Abroad.* By the Author of the *Hermit in London*, and *Hermit in the Country*. 12mo. 2 Vols. Colburn and Co. 1828.

THE two former productions of this lively satirist and useful writer have already attracted the attention and earned the approbation of the public. (See M. R. vol. xcvi. p. 365.) He rather acquires than loses skill by the habit of composition: for his caricature is less broad, his discrimination more delicate, and his moral and pathetic intervals occur more frequently; while the tone of good company, the ingenuities of colloquy, and the urbanities of diction, are more ready at his command. He now crosses the Channel, and we have pleasure in crossing with him. In a chapter which would be no disgrace to an imitator of Sterne, the story of 'The wounded Hussar' is thus told:

Travelling betwixt Senlis and Meaux, in the short peace, preceding the Hundred Days' reign of Napoleon, I perceived a French hussar,

hussar, journeying on foot and extremely lame. His face was of the palest cast, yet uncommonly mild and interesting. He appeared fatigued and weak; his features bespoke disappointment; and his eyes seemed to say, "I have now no *Etat*. — I have the world to begin over again, a long wearisome journey before me, very little money and no friends."

A handkerchief held all the treasure he had, which over his shoulder he threw.

"Such a man, thought I to myself, cannot be mine enemy; his face shows that poverty will not drive him to the commission of crime; and who knows but he may sink on the road and never reach his home, if home he have. "Would it not be a generous act, a work of charity to give him a lift?" said I to myself. "But a soldier of Napoleon!" whispered prejudice in my ear. — "If he were a soldier of our army, indeed," cried my nationality and selfishness, — "if he were even my countryman." "Aye, but," suggested humanity, "is he not a man and a brother? Well, I will ask him to take a cast."

"Soldier," said I to him, in French, "you are weary and lame, accept a place in my caleche if you are travelling my road." "I fear I am intruding," answered he, with the urbanity of a drawing-room. "I had only my own man with me, who looked sulkily at him. "Not at all," answered I, "sit here by my side, and put your bundle under the seat." — "*Helas!*" exclaimed he, with a look of humility which I shall never forget, "*mon paquet ne vaut pas grande chose*." The weather was very cold; I alighted at the first post-house; and, lighting my segar, I gave the hussar one, and insisted on paying for some refreshment for him and my servant. He accepted both offers without servility, yet with diffidence.

On our road he informed me that he was only two-and-twenty, that he had been brought up to no trade, and that he had been forced away from his aged parents, at sixteen, by the conscription, which almost broke their hearts. I asked him if he liked the army. He answered, "Not at first, certainly; but, forced as I was to serve, I thought that the name of deserter sounded like that of coward, and though I entered the service reluctantly, I could not but do my duty." This was said with manliness and resolution. His lameness proceeded from a wound; and he had a journey of three hundred miles before him, with the uncertainty of finding his parents alive, having been absent from them for six years, and not having heard from them for a considerable time.

The night came on. It rained and was excessively dark. I asked him if there were robbers on the road. He answered that he knew not; but, turning to me and laying his hand on his breast, he said in a voice softened by gratitude, "I am a Frenchman, Sir; but I would lay down my life in your defence, on account of your kindness towards a poor stranger." I shook him by the hand involuntarily and most heartily, on which he raised his cap from his head, as if to acknowledge what he thought condescension.

"We arrived at the auberge where we were to pass the night. I was weary, and only took a glass of brandy and water; but I ordered supper and a bottle of wine for the hussar and my domestic, who by this time had got into better humour. The aubergiste eyed the former with scorn; but I informed him (to his astonishment) that this soldier was one of my party; and this procured him all proper attention.

"In the morning we were to part. The hussar presented himself before me to make his last bow. I felt a weakness which I cannot explain. I hate thanks, and wished that he had not seen me go. Yet it would humiliate the poor fellow to part without bidding him farewell, and without wishing him a good journey. I held out my hand to him. He uncovered himself, and received it respectfully. I offered him a little money, which, drawing back gracefully, he refused, saying "that I had already done more for him than he could expect." Then trying to speak, he burst into tears, and scarcely could articulate "*Adieu, mon commandant!*" "*Adieu, mon pauvre camarade!*" said I. Then jumping into the carriage, I told the post-boy to drive like the devil. These were my foolish words, for I caught my eyes betraying me into wretched emotions. I looked around and saw the hussar's eyes still fixed upon the carriage. He again took off his cap, and we were soon out of sight of each other, perhaps — for ever.

"Perish the hand which, when the battle-strife is over, will not succour a fellow-man in distress.

"I have a hundred times thought with satisfaction of poor Pierre Berguin, the hussar, transported myself to the humble roof of his parents, felt my pulse increase as I wondered whether he would rush into the embraces of his aged father and mother — exclaim with the same jewel which trembled in his eye at parting with me, "*Mes chers parens, voila votre fils,*" and whether, sharing their humble fare, he would tell the story of our meeting; and devote a glass and a kind wish to the health and prosperity of his fellow-man, journeying on the eventful road of life, who gave him a lift betwixt Senlis and Meaux.

Many satirical portraits of English travellers are interwoven, which ought to have the effect of teaching us how to travel, and of diminishing the proportion of those peregrinators, whose unbending adherence to native habits gives such an air of awkwardness to the exported Englishman. Let us reflect that the national character, or estimation, is made up of many recollected observations on individuals, and that each has some influence on the reputation of all. It may be argued that those countries, which have longest been civilized, have more fully and generally acquired the art of living wisely than the nations which have more recently attempted refinement; and therefore we ought at least to view without prejudice the practices of foreign nations, when we visit them, if those nations be of more ancient polish than our

own. — The four chapters superscribed 'The English Abroad' contain excellent lessons.

"In the second volume, a new sort of *Dandy* is well satirized under the title of 'An Anglo-Italian,' whom we shall contribute to expose.

'Sitting with my old friend Money-penny, of Philpot-Lane, at an open window of the Hôtel des Princes, my ears were charmed by the voice of a person singing a recitative in a most theatrical style. It appeared to me to be the harmony of a female, and I leaned over the window to ascertain whether such scientific strains were allowed to

— waste their sweetness on the desert air."

There were no vocal or instrumental performers about the door: but the sounds came nearer and nearer; at length the recitative ended with "a dying fall," and was dove-tailed into a grand opera-air; I looked amazed and enchanted, and was just about to enquire what accomplished *cantatrice* lodged on the same floor, when a deep tenor-note made me doubt the sex. Here the old merchant shook his head and cried, "Poor stuff, I cannot bear it." At this moment the door flew open, and a fine young man appeared in a chintz night-gown, his white neck and bosom open, like a lady's, a fantastic Tyrolean cap upon his head, loose trousers, no stockings, and a pair of lemon-coloured morocco slippers; he had a lute in one hand, and held the door in the other in a very graceful statue-like attitude; neither was he unmanly in feature, nor in that finish to a male face, (the *sine qua non* of masculine beauty,) a becoming beard; but the nudity of the bust, the fancy-dress, the studied position, affected smile, and professional voice, were not exactly *à mon goût*. "I beg pardon," said he, as he half retired: "but I say, Sir, (to the old merchant,) what my Venetian scoundrel made his appearance with the Cimarosa's music? is my violoncello come back from the shop? and have these cursed *douaniers*, worse than Goths, Vandals, Huns, Hottentots, or barbarians, restored my box filled with *ogetti*, dear to my soul, — casts, intaglioës, alto relievos, rare books and antiquities, which I would not exchange for a kingdom? and is my Signor Segretario returned from his embassy?" — "Jack," cried old square-toes, "I know nothing about your fooleries, nor will I pay the immense sums for the ——" Here the young man interrupted him in a *contralto* note — "for the most rare and divine acquisitions, who must find themselves very much astonished if ever they sojourn in *Phil-pot Lane*" (making two distinct syllables of the word, and pronouncing it in a contemptuous tone). "Ma," resumed he, "*scusate mi*," and closing the door, gracefully withdrew.

"A Jack-o'-napes," exclaimed old Ready Rhino. — "But who is he?" enquired I. — "Why my glorious son, a fellow whom I bred up to the counter and intended for business; my only child whom I looked to for to represent me when I was no more; to inherit

inherit the firm and so make a second fortune, instead of being like a mountebank or a strolling player, or the non-naturals of the opera-cattle. I sent the fool to Leghorn with a ship of mine to dispose of the produce and to get in some bad debts; when, lo and behold you! he wrote me word that it would be highly to the benefit of our house if he remained six months in order to perfect himself in Italian; and I like an old numskull complied, giving him unlimited credit, which he was not backward in using. Then again, he persuaded me to let him go a wild-goose chase to Rome, and all over Sicily and Italy; and next he got a fall from his horse, and must go to the baths at Lucca for the recovery of strains; whilst I was straining every nerve at home to earn money for the coxcomb; and next he must draw upon me for a thousand at Genoa, and for twice as much from Naples, for trash which he called valuables. Then I hear of him at the Carnival at Venice, and then again at Naples, living like man and wife with a titled trollop; and at last I was obliged to set off for Paris, and to write him word that I would cut him off with a shilling, if he did not come and meet me immediately, so that I might bring him home, and either put him in a counting-house, or a strait-waistcoat. With his conocentis, and dilettantis, his vapour-baths, vapouring idiot! and his being *cavaliere servente* to a duchess, and I don't know what besides, the rascal's ruined, and I am disappointed and undone. An only child, the prop of my age—is it not enough to bring my grey hairs with sorrow to the grave, after an absence of three years?"

"Well, my good friend," said I, "but all is not lost; the young man is very accomplished; he plays, sings, speaks foreign languages, and he may grow steadier by and by."—"Why, Sir, would you believe it," said old Moneypenny, "he has absolutely refused a share in the business? he says that if I will not allow him five hundred per ann. abroad, he will live there either on his operatical talents, or turn translator or interpreter; but forsooth he must breathe the soft air of Italy,—d—n all other airs! and must have his *chocolata*,—devil choke the inventors of; and his ice-water and macaroni, as if he wasn't macaroni enough himself; and he cannot exist without foreign singing and an outlandish mistress. There's a pretty turn out for a tradesman's son! not to mention all the money and all the heart-aches which he has cost me." The old man looked wretched. "His baggage," resumed he, "has half bankrupted me in duties; and he now wants to take over a waggon load full, and a fellow whom he calls his secretary; but I hope that the efforts may be condoned and the fellow be hanged before either reach old Philpot Lane. What art thou to do, my worthy friend?"

"I replied, "that it was a pity that father and son should separate; though I was fearful that it would be difficult to assimilate the habits of the young man to a mercantile life; I was, however, willing to try, and persuade him as far as I could, and that each must give up something in order to come to an amicable arrangement."

arrangement, the old man thanked me, and I set off with my *particulière* to the Anglo-Italian.

Terms.

1. A demand of five hundred per annum, as pocket-money, if forced to pine amongst the cobwebs of the city. Agreed.

2. Chocolate for breakfast, macaroni for dinner, with poultry, light wines, and ices daily. Agreed.

3. A silver ticket for the Opera. Agreed (after a demur).

4. Only to be a sleeping partner in the trade. Agreed (with a sigh).

5. Not to be expected to sleep in town. Agreed.

6. To bring over ———. Refused.

7. To retain Signor Segretario. Refused (but agreed to pay him off handsomely).

8. Not to be expected to see or associate with uncle the packer, nor cousin the oil-man, nor any of the city neighbours, oftener than once per ann. Agreed.

9. Not to be called Jack. Agreed (but the name of *Giovanni* not suiting father, to be called Mr. M.).

10. To be allowed to visit Italy once in two years. Agreed.

These articles were signed in form; the old merchant merely making the following observation: "I have brought my pigs to a fine market."

Having made father and son shake hands, and hearing the post-horses ordered for the next day, I took a farewell leave of my old acquaintance, with whom I got connected from our being governors of the same charitable institution. I rather doubt whether the *treaty* will hold long, but I trust that time may bring the only child of a worthy industrious man to his senses. This portrait may appear a little highly coloured, or overcharged, but if my reader has an opportunity of seeing a number of our countrymen, who have resided for some time in Italy, and who have imbibed its soft enervated taste, he will witness for himself such things as are here described.

Among the new and original delineations of local usage, which have escaped the notice of other travellers, may especially be remarked 'A Pilgrimage to Halle, three Leagues from Brussels,' and 'The Day of Promises,' both of which chapters describe peculiarities of the Flemings, that have not hitherto been recorded.

This work bears much resemblance to the "Sentimental Journey" of Sterne, though it is not equal in execution. Both attempt characteristic pictures of French nature in its more prominent varieties; and both wander "from grave to gay, from lively to severe," with desultory caprice and versatile emotion. In Sterne we have more of intuition; in the *Hérmite* more of observation: — in Sterne, of feeling; in the *Hérmite*, of sarcasm: — in Sterne, of grace; in the *Hérmite*, of caricature: —

ceased:—In Sterne, of condensation; in the Hermit, of repetition. Many phenomena are noticed by the Hermit which have originated since Sterne's time: but, for the very reason that he attends to the *fugacious*, he will not preserve so perpetual an interest.

ART. VIII. *Observations on some of the General Principles, and on the particular Nature and Treatment, of the different Species of Inflammation*; being, with Additions, the Substance of an Essay to which the Jacksonian Prize, for the Year 1818, was adjudged by the Royal College of Surgeons. By J. H. James, Surgeon to the Devon and Exeter Hospital, &c. 8vo. pp. 328. 10s. 6d. Boards. Underwoods.

THE subject of inflammation being of vast importance to medical science, it has occupied the pens of some of our most eminent professional writers, and still offers a rich field for the labors of the diligent and ingenious inquirer. It is essential to inflammation, that the part in which it is seated should contain a greater quantity of arterial blood than it did before the inflammatory state commenced; and hence arise swelling, increased redness in external parts, exalted sensibility, and augmented temperature. The process of inflammation, also, is opposed to that of nutrition, for its tendency is to injure and destroy the perfect organization of the living solid. During the inflamed condition of a part, the repair of that waste which is continually taking place throughout the animated frame is there wholly interrupted; while absorption is going on with its wonted, or with much increased, rapidity. The practical application of this doctrine is sufficiently familiar in surgery. Inflammation no doubt frequently terminates in an effusion of plastic lymph, which coagulates, and after a time becomes organized: but it is to be observed, that the throwing out of this liquid tends to put a period to the inflammation, and that no attempt at organization takes place until inflammation has ceased. Did the inflamed state of the part continue after effusion had occurred, suppuration would be the consequence. The formation of some morbid growths appears to be effected by the successive effusion of portions of plastic lymph, and its subsequent imperfect organization: but this is unquestionably different from true nutrition, in which no effusion of lymph takes place, but each tissue receives an increase of a substance similar to itself; muscle being added to muscle, ligament to ligament, and so forth.

Many

Many writers, however, and among others Mr. James, have compared the condition of an inflamed part to that of one which is receiving an increase of organized substance; and he has instanced, in proof of similarity, the growth of stags' horns, and the development of the uterus and its contents during pregnancy. Richeraud has even compared an inflamed part to a new organ, in which there is an excess of life;—but the nutrient processes, instanced above, are altogether different from inflammation; for in them no loss of balance occurs between the capillaries and the arterial branches with which they communicate. A manifest increase of the uterine arteries takes place in pregnancy, and a similar change is noted in the vessels which feed the sprouting horns of the stag: but in neither, when the processes are healthy, do we observe permanent turgescence of the capillaries. These vessels, indeed, gradually enlarge, and become arterial branches, while new capillaries are formed to supply the place of those which have undergone this change. In inflammation, on the other hand, the capillaries, according to universal observation, dilate and become turgid: but no other vessels of this description are formed in their place, and for that very reason nutrition is at a stand in truly inflamed parts, since it is by these vessels that the nutrient process is accomplished. Mr. James asserts, on the authority of Dr. Hennen, (*Military Surgery*), that the hair grows faster on an inflamed than on a sound portion of skin: but, admitting the fact (which our own observation does not enable us to verify,) it cannot be adduced in proof of the similarity of inflammation and nutrition, unless we believe that in such cases the bulbs of the hair are themselves inflamed. Is there not strong reason to think, that inflammation of the hair-bulbs would speedily produce not increased growth but destruction of the hair? The state of an inflamed part receives a curious illustration from those congenital vascular tumours occasionally seen, when we have at once tumefaction from an excessive supply of arterial blood, throbbing, and considerable increase of temperature. It would be absurd to say that such tumours are specimens of perpetual inflammation; yet certainly they are nearly allied to that state.

The condition of the capillary vessels of an inflamed part has presented an interesting object of research to our modern physiologists, and many experiments have been instituted to determine the point at issue. Are the turgid capillaries of an inflamed part, in a weakened state, incapable of forcing on their contents with healthy rapidity; or are they dilated, but acting with more than natural vigor? The question is

still

still surrounded by considerable density, which does not seem likely to be soon removed. Mr. James has stated, in a very perspicuous manner, the objections which may be urged against the doctrine of the debility of the capillaries in inflammation. We have already, in some measure, considered his first argument, which consists in a comparison of inflammation with nutrition: but to go over the others would occupy more space than we can allot to this subject. It appears to us that all the symptoms of inflammation may be satisfactorily explained, by supposing that the capillary vessels of an inflamed part, or a great proportion of them, are so far dilated that their contents receive the distinct pulse of the heart; although their own contractile power may have suffered neither increase nor diminution. In this manner we shall be enabled to account for the universal throbb of the highly inflamed part, the awakened morbid sensibility, the augmented temperature, and the tumefaction of such parts. We feel at a loss to reconcile the rapid dilatation, which is observed to take place in the capillaries of an inflamed part, with the idea of increasing tone and vigor of contractions; but we are willing to concede to these vessels, in some instances at least, the same contractile power which they possess in health; while in others, we conceive, this power is diminished in various degrees, so as to produce those diversities in the character of inflammation with which all must be familiar.

The principal object which Mr. James appears to have had in view, in this essay, was not so much to elucidate the theory of inflammation, or to consider the treatment of that disease, as to present an arrangement of *inflammations* which should facilitate our knowledge of their various kinds, and lead to scientific improvements in the mode of their cure. He divides all *inflammations* into two great classes:—those in which there is a tendency to limit the disease, by the effusion of organizable lymph,—and those in which this does not exist, and where the inflammation is disposed to spread. This mode corresponds to the old division of *inflammations* into *pillegmonous* and *erysipelatous*, and *sthenic* and *asthenic*. Mr. James has said, ‘The danger of the disease (inflammation) being in proportion to the disposition to spread, *ceteris paribus*, more constitutional sympathy denominated sympathetic favours will be excited.’ (P. 18.) This short sentence contains two assertions, in neither of which we can concur. We deny that the disposition of inflammation to spread affords a measure of the danger by which it is attended; or that this is the cause of the constitutional sympathy. Are true can-

buncle

luncheon and acute inflammation of the knee-joint, both of which he arranges in the first class, accompanied by less constitutional disturbance, or are they less likely to destroy life, than *ecchyma mercuriale* or *erysipelas erythematicum*, where the tendency to spread is so remarkable? In his arrangement, we have been struck with several particulars, which appear to us to call for remark. Abscesses under the *platysma myoides*, and those near the *anus* and *urethra*, in advanced life, are placed among *inflammations* having a disposition to be circumscribed; although it is universally acknowledged, that such cases require an early interference of the surgeon, to prevent a speedy diffusion of the purulent matter. On the other hand, inflammation of arteries, in which we know there is an uniform tendency to the effusion of plastic lymph and to the occlusion of the tube, is arranged among those which have a tendency to spread. In the same class just mentioned, he has placed aphthæ, small-pox, and inflammation from syphilitic poison; but, in all of these diseases, the effusion of lymph forms an usual characteristic, and the natural tendency is as much to limitation as to extension. Distinct *aphthæ*, and distinct *small-pox*, present these diseases in a form unquestionably perfect; and the effusion of lymph is beyond doubt the cause of the indurated base of the bluntherian syphilitic sore. Many species of instantaneous inflammation, all of which are placed by the author among those that are disposed to spread, do not extend for months, and often years, beyond the immediate vicinity of the spot in which they first appeared. — With respect to inflamed *fold of chronic abscesses, bursa*, and tumours when open, we see no propriety in arranging them with *inflammations* which spread; for in these cases the inflammation is almost always limited by the extent of the morbid cavity or growth; and hence they seem decidedly to claim a place with inflammation of joints, which Mr. James has arranged among those that are disposed to be limited.

Having divided *Inflammations* into two great classes, the author proceeds next to divide these into *orders*, and the *orders* into *genera*. For the basis of the former, he assumes the degree of connection of the inflamed organ with the vital functions of the animal: — for the basis of the latter, the original disposition of the inflammation to terminate in one mode rather than another.

The exertion which the author has thus made, to form an arrangement of *inflammations*, is highly laudable, and merits the thanks of the profession; but we confess that our opinions

nions on this subject differ widely from those which he entertains. Inflammation we believe to be always essentially the same; although varying in character, from the greater or less power of the dilated capillaries to force on their contents. Varieties in intensity, and in the period of duration, will give us, for species, the *hyperacute*, the *acute*, the *subacute*, and the *chronic*: the first of these terminating rapidly in gangrene or effusion; the second, in resolution, suppuration, or effusion; and the third often identifying itself with the *chronic*, and terminating usually in a gradual effusion of serum, or of coagulating lymph.

Mr. James has stated many strong objections to the doctrine which arranges inflammations according to the tissues that are affected: but he is constrained to admit that this doctrine is valuable, and that, when carried to a certain extent, it has served to elucidate in a remarkable manner the varieties of inflammatory disease. Inflammation is modified by two circumstances, both of which are of very great importance in the consideration of this subject: first, by the form and connections as well as the texture of the part in which it is seated; secondly, by the state of the patient's constitution during the existence of inflammation: — to which the author has added the influence of air and temperature, which are known to possess a remarkable control over the character and progress of inflammation. These, however, as well as food, act only through the medium of the constitution, by affecting the digestion, the state of the nervous power, and that of the vascular system.

The author's opinions respecting the blood, as they tend to a rational revival of the *humoral pathology*, appear to us well deserving of notice.

An impure state of the blood exists, perhaps, more frequently than we are aware of: but, as it is invariably connected with disorder of the digestive organs, the effects which partly arise from both causes are often exclusively attributed to one. But when I see persons in whom every scratch festers into a sore, as in scurvy or scrofula; — when I observe that the atmosphere alone will change the disposition of every action; — that poisons introduced, and acting upon the circulating medium, will induce the most powerful effects upon the whole system; — I must profess myself to be a humoralist in a considerable degree, (although quite ready to recognize the direct, as well as the indirect, influence of the digestive organs and nervous system on disease,) a doctrine which Mr. Abernethy has himself most perspicuously enforced, with reference to many; for, although he prefers the general explanation of the phenomena of disease by sympathy, yet he does by no means exclude the influence of a depraved state of the blood.

* If experimental research often instructs, I believe also it frequently deceives us, because we too hastily form deductions from what we deem *conclusive* experiments. Now, the opposition to the humoral pathology has chiefly been grounded on the fact, that we cannot discover such an alteration in the circulating fluids as would seem to us to justify the supposition that it exists. When, however, we see the efforts and the expedition with which the animal economy rids itself of *some* foreign matters, which we can recognize by their specific effects, as ipecacuanha or jalap introduced into the veins, or by their sensible qualities, as mercury, nitre, asparagus, turpentine, garlic, &c., introduced any how, we must be strongly prejudiced not to believe that those matters have been contained in the blood — even although in the blood we cannot perceive them. But do not the vital powers quell and suspend the chemical properties of most substances? — Do they not convert the most dissimilar matters into an apparently similar substance? — May they not prevent these, and others, from manifesting their specific qualities, which, nevertheless, though modified, are not completely subdued, and may still excite great disturbance in the constitution? — And if so, may not these powers, with reason, be supposed to prevent the *sensible* alterations in the qualities of the blood, in such diseases as scurvy, scrofula, gout, lues, mercurial disease? — And if we are compelled to admit such alterations in these, may we not be called upon to allow that it possibly exists in a greater or less degree in many others? The abuse of the humoral pathology has led to infinite mischief: but if we are content to recognise the truth of the doctrine, as far as facts seem to establish it, without, however, grounding any theory or practice on that which we only imperfectly understand, no harm can arise from our belief. We can never err while we consider experience paramount.

Although Mr. James has not proved more successful than his predecessors in the attempt to construct a satisfactory arrangement of *inflammations*, we gladly yield him the praise of having presented a very accurate enumeration, and description, of all such as do not affect the bones and organs of selfe, and are unaccompanied by specific disease. The portions of his work which treat of gangrene and erysipelas appear to us possessed of great merit; though his opinions on these subjects do not always command our unqualified assent. The volume forms, on the whole, a valuable accession to scientific surgery; and it affords an interesting earnest of what we have a right to expect from the pen of Mr. James, when his opinions and knowledge have become still more fully matured by a yet wider range of professional experience.

ART. IX. *Memoirs of the Wernerian Natural History Society.* Vol. IV. For the Years 1821, 1822, 1823. Part II. With Seven Engravings. 8vo. pp. 350. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

WE have so often spoken of this Society, and of its labors, that we need not offer any farther preface to our account of the volume before us than a reference to our report of the first part of it in M. R. for January last. The present continuation commences with a *Sketch of the Geognosy of Part of the Coast of Northumberland.* By W. C. Trevelyan, Esq. The portion of coast here reviewed is only about three miles in length, from Budle Granery to Iselstone; but, within that very limited range, a great diversity of strata prevails. Mr. Trevelyan very briefly glances at their nature and respective positions, with a constant reference to his map, and to specimens transmitted to the Society. The alternations are chiefly of lime-stone, sand-stone, and shale: but different modifications of trap, felspar, quartz, &c. also make their appearance. A seam of coal, 17 or 18 inches thick, was worked for a short time in Holy Island, but was given up on account of water which oozed in from the sea. The lime-stone and shale, when in contact with the trap, are much altered in their appearance; and the former, when reduced to powder, and thrown on heated iron, are highly phosphorescent. Towards the north-west point of the Ferne Island, a fissure proceeds some yards between two rocks, through which, in storms from that quarter, the sea is driven with great violence, and forms a beautiful jet d'eau, frequently sixty feet high, known on the coast by the name of the Churn.

On the Fossil Remains of Quadrupeds, &c. discovered in the Cairns at Kirkdale, in Yorkshire, and in other Cavities or Seams in Lime-stone Rocks. By the Rev. George Young, A. M. Some of the circumstances stated in this paper have already appeared in a more ample form in the Geological Survey of Yorkshire, and in Professor Buckland's communications to the Royal Society, but others have been subsequently ascertained. Thus, some of the large teeth, which were assigned to the *Palæotherium magnum*, have been found to belong to the lower jaw of the Rhinoceros. The remains of large and small Elephants; and of the Hippopotamus, are limited in quantity: but those of the Rhinoceros, the Elk, and the Fox, and particularly of the Hyæna, are more abundant.

Among the mud of the cavern, Professor Buckland discovered some rounded pieces, or balls, of a whitish substance, which he supposes to be the fecal matter of the hyenas. This substance, being

being analyzed by Dr. Wollaston, was found to consist of the same ingredients as the dung of dogs that are fed on bones. I have seen some specimens of this substance; but having observed some pieces of bones nearly in the same state, I am not without suspicion, that the whole may be portions of bone, decomposed in the cavern, and reduced to their present form by a mixture of water and other ingredients. No sand or gravel, or next to none, has been found in the mud; yet I have procured from it two or three small pebbles.

In 1786, bones were also found in a quarry to the north-east of Kirby Moorside; and, in 1821, at Pallion, near Sunderland. The author of the present essay, having communicated the principal facts which he had an opportunity of investigating, purposes, on some future occasion, to attempt to account for them.

List of Birds observed in the Zetland Islands. By Laurence Edmonston, Esq. — It is well remarked by Mr. E. that the Zetland islands are peculiarly favorable for observing the different species of sea-fowl, and such of the comparatively few land-birds as haunt their woodless wastes. His catalogue, which is intended only as a supplement to those of former writers, includes 59 nominal species; few of which were generally known to frequent those islands, but some of which have been ascertained to be the young of other species. *Stria nyctea*, *S. passerina*, *Larus islandicus*, *Anas spectabilis*, *Platyleuca leucorodia*, and *Recurvirostra avocetta*, may be cited among the *rara aves* of the *ultima Thule*. According to the present naturalist, who has diligently availed himself of the opportunities of his insular residence, *Colymbus minor* is only the young of *C. troile*; *C. immer*, the young of *C. glacialis*; *Pelecanus cristatus*, the Common Shag, in its perfect dress; *Anas glaucion*, the young of the Golden Eye; *Alca pica*, the young of the Razor Bill; *Emberiza montelina*, the Snow Hawk, in its imperfect plumage; and *Larus tridactylus*, the young of the Kittiwake. In fact, the systematic nomenclature of the families of water-fowl only begins to assume consistency, and Mr. Edmonston has co-operated with Temminck, Montagu, and Sabine, in tracing the genuine lines of their discriminations.

An Illustration of the Natural Family of Plants called Melastomaceæ. By Mr. David Don, Curator of the Lambertian Herbarium. — Mr. Don's synoptical extrication of this family of plants is the more desirable because the subject has been hitherto involved in difficulty and confusion; and because, improving on the labors of Aublet, Jussieu, Ruiz, and Pavon, he has enjoyed the rare advantage of access to the finest collection

of specimens in Europe; his patron, Mr. Lambert, having paid particular attention to this order, and enriched his herbarium with several unpublished species. Having premised some general remarks, Mr. Don proceeds to lay down the definitions of the order; next those of the respective genera, amounting to eighteen, with their differential characters; and, lastly, descriptions of the species, accompanied by occasional critical observations. *Rhagia* is the only extra-tropical genus, being limited in its range to North America; and its species are all dwarfish herbaceous perennials, or annuals.

Examination by Chemical Re-agents of a Liquid from the Crater of Vulcano, one of the Lipari Islands. By John Murray, F. L. S. — This liquid, obtained from the bottom of the crater of Vulcano, and procured by the Earl of Mountnorris, is quite diaphanous, of a styptic taste, and slightly reddens litmus paper. It is remarkable for containing all the ingredients of meteoric stones, with the exception of silica. Of two substances found in the same crater, one proved to be an ammoniaco sulphate of alumina; and the other, in the form of scales, exhibited the properties of boric acid. 'That the waters of the ocean,' observes Dr. Murray, 'have some subterranean communication with the source of volcanic fires, has ever appeared to me a conclusion perfectly warrantable; but the spring whence the *muriate of ammonia* has flowed is a problem of more difficult complexion. I greatly deceive myself, however, if an ammoniacal combination does not obtain in *marine salt*. If sea-salt be finely powdered, and triturated with a solution of caustic potassa, or even with dry quick-lime, muriatic acid will announce the escape of *ammonia*. This circumstance, combined with the researches of Rouelle and Proust, respecting the existence of a mercurial salt in the oceanic waters, would lead us to conclude, when conjoined with the discovery of *muriate of potassa* in them by Dr. Wollaston, that their chemical constituents are more *complex* than had been hitherto supposed.'

Notice of Marine Deposits on the Margin of Loch Lomond. By Mr. J. Adamson. — From the existence of a few repositories of shells in lime-stone and clay, Mr. Adamson infers that Loch Lomond was once an arm of the sea; though now deprived of all perceptible saltiness, in consequence of the perpetual contributions of fresh water passing off, and carrying in their train a portion of the gradually reduced amount of saline particles. The same sort of reasoning may possibly apply to most of our fresh-water lakes.

Descrip-

Descriptions of the Esculent Fungi of Great Britain, with Observations. By Robert Kaye Greville, Esq., F.R.S. Ed. — That the inhabitants of this country despise or reject a number of fungi, which form a popular description of food in the rest of Europe, is a fact sufficiently proved by the quotations from Pallas, and the references to Decandolle, &c., which the learned author of this memoir has adduced. The eatable sorts are almost all included in the genera *Tuber*, *Morchella*, *Helvella*, *Clavaria*, *Hydnum*, *Cantharellus*, *Boletus*, *Agaricus*, and *Amanita*; species of all of which are indigenous to British soil. As several of them, however, have been found to possess deleterious properties, we can scarcely be too circumspect in our selection of the wholesome kinds.

As the plant commonly known by the name of the *Fly-fungus* (from its property of destroying flies when steeped in milk) has made some noise of late on the Continent, I must warn those who might feel inclined to try it in this country, of the danger they would expose themselves to. It has not been clearly ascertained whether the species which grows in this country, and in the south of Europe, be indeed the same as that which is found in Kamtschatka, and called *Amanita Muscaria Kamtschatica*. At any rate, our plant is known to be highly poisonous; and the Kamtschatka variety may be another species, or have partly lost its virulence, from inhabiting a more northern climate. The properties of this variety are exceedingly curious, and as they are contained in a German essay by Dr. Langsdorf, in *Annalen der Wetteranischen Gesellschaft für die gesamte Naturkunde*, I trust a concise account of them will not be unacceptable.

This variety of *Amanita Muscaria* is used by the inhabitants of the north-eastern parts of Asia, in the same manner as wine, brandy, arrack, opium, &c. is by other nations. These fungi are found most plentifully about Wischna Kamtschatka, and Milkowa Derewna, and are very abundant in some seasons, and scarce in others. They are collected in the hottest months, and hung up by a string in the air to dry: some dry of themselves on the ground, and are said to be far more narcotic than those artificially preserved. Small deep-coloured specimens, thickly covered with warts, are also said to be more powerful than those of a larger size and paler colour.

The usual mode of taking the fungus is, to roll it up like a bolus, and swallow it without chewing, which, the Kamtschadats say, would disorder the stomach. It is sometimes eaten fresh in soups and sauces, and then loses much of the intoxicating property; when steeped in the juice of the berries of *Vaccinium uliginosum*, its effects are those of strong wine.

One large, or two small fungi, is a common dose to produce a pleasant intoxication for a whole day, particularly if water be drunk after it, which augments the narcotic principle. The desired effect comes on from one to two hours after taking the fungus. Giddiness and drunkenness result from the fungus, in the same manner as from wine or spirits; cheerful emotions of the

mind are first produced; the countenance becomes flushed; involuntary words and actions follow, and sometimes at least an entire loss of consciousness. It renders some remarkably active, and proves highly stimulant to muscular exertion: with too large a dose, violent spasmodic effects are produced.

So very exciting to the nervous system; in many individuals, is this fungus, that the effects are often very ludicrous. If a person under its influence wishes to step over a straw or small stick, he takes a stride or a jump sufficient to clear the trunk of a tree; a talkative person cannot keep silence or secrets; and one fond of music is perpetually singing.

The most singular effect of the *Amanita* is the influence it possesses over the urine. It is said that from time immemorial the inhabitants have known that the fungus imparts an intoxicating quality to that secretion, which continues for a considerable time after taking it. For instance; a man moderately intoxicated to-day, will by the next morning have slept himself sober; but (as is the custom) by taking a tea-cup of his urine, be more powerfully intoxicated than he was the preceding day by the fungus. It is therefore not uncommon for confirmed drunkards to preserve their urine as a precious liquor, against a scarcity of the fungus. This intoxicating property of the urine is capable of being propagated; for every one who partakes of it has his urine similarly affected. Thus, with a very few *Amanita*, a party of drunkards may keep up their debauch for a week. Dr. Langsdorf mentions that by means of the second person taking the urine of the first, the third that of the second, and so on, the intoxication may be propagated through five individuals.

Mr. Greville then proceeds to comment, in a masterly style, on 26 eatable species, beginning with *Tuber cibarium*, and concluding with *Helvella leucophaea*; the whole forming the most complete digest of British edible fungi that has yet appeared. As De Borch's Letters on the Truffles of Piedmont are not, we believe, accessible to the mere English reader, that author's directions for forming a truffle-bed might have been incorporated with Mr. Greville's annotations. — Superficial observers being liable to confound *Amanita Cesarea* with *A. muscaria*, Mr. G. has taken pains to note the more prominent points of distinction.

Notice relative to the Habits of the Hyæna of Southern Africa. By R. Knox, M.D. — From Dr. Knox's personal observations, he is inclined to question the validity of Professor Buckland's theory of the Kirkdale cavern having been a den of hyænas, as these animals in Africa do not appear to carry off their prey to any distance, but devour it on the spot where it is killed, and leave the skeleton untouched. He even expresses a doubt whether the Kirkdale bones are really the remains of hyænas, bears, and tigers, and not rather those of some other animals whose races may have become extinct.

An Account of Three large Loadstones, one of which presented an unusual Line of Attraction. By John Deuchar, Lecturer on Chemistry in Edinburgh. — In the history of magnetism, some striking facts are cited in support of the opinion that the magnetic energy of small loadstones is, comparatively, stronger than that of larger: but Mr. Deuchar's observations on three specimens, now in Edinburgh, whither they were transmitted from Russia, would rather lead to an opposite conclusion; for, when stripped of their rusty iron armature, and mounted with copper and brass, their power greatly increased. The largest, independently of its armature and connecting iron, of about twenty-eight pounds, and the ropes and pulleys, which might be twelve pounds more, sustained a weight of 165 pounds, or 205 pounds in all. These natural magnets were brought to Scotland in the same vessel; and the two larger having been placed beside each other, during the passage, with their improper poles in contact, the weaker had its poles reversed. Other particulars relative to these remarkable specimens will be best apprehended by references to the plates.

Recollections of a Journey from Kandy to Calcutta, by the Way of Adam's Peak, made in the Year 1819. By Simon Sawers, Esq., Commissioner of Revenue in the Kandyan Provinces, and Mr. Henry Marshall, Surgeon to the Forces, and Author of a Work on the Medical Topography and Diseases of the Interior of Ceylon. — This singular journey, great part of which was performed through forests or jungles, and frequently over very rugged ground, occupied Mr. Sawers and his numerous attendants from the 29th of March to the 5th of April; the daily stages being short, on account of the obstacles which pressed on their path. On the borders of every district they were met by the native chief, with his noisy musicians and followers, who attended on them to the confines of the next province.

The Kandyan cottages are in general deeply embowered in trees and low jungle. At a distance, the residence of a Kandyan is discovered by the nature of the trees and shrubs that grow around his dwelling. These are chiefly the broad-leaved talipot, the tall cocoa-nut, the erect and stately jagery tree, the elegant and slender areca, the dark-green leaved jack, the luxuriant plantain, and the silvery glistening kokon-gaha.

Within about a mile of Ambergamine, there is, at the right side of the pathway, a large fragment of rock, nearly covered with inscriptions, in a character unknown to the natives of the country.

The wild elephants are no trifling annoyance to the cultivators of the fields; for they lay waste the rice-crops, and will

will tumble down the mud-huts, to get at hoards of grain, which they discover with singular sagacity; while chetas and bears are scarcely less troublesome visitors. The highland cottagers subsist principally on jagery, a sort of coarse sugar obtained from the *Caryota urens*. On their rugged hills, the plantain grows spontaneously, and bears fruit of a comparatively small size. — At Welle-malloo, the thermometer in the tent reached 100°. — On the 2d of April, the party encamped on the left bank of the Gangaloo-o-ya, with Adam's Peak rising immediately from the opposite bank, like an immense acuminate dome, and covered with jungle to the upper portion, which is a huge cone of granite, bearing a partial and scanty vegetation. Next morning, before the ascent was commenced, the native attendants performed their ceremonies of ablution in the river, preparatory to presenting their offerings at the shrine of the impression of the holy foot; a tribute which generally consists of small pieces of copper coin, shreds of cotton, rice, cocoa-nuts, flowers, &c., wrapped in a bit of cloth, and borne in a handkerchief tied round the head. On leaving the river, the pathway led up a deep ravine, the bed of a mountain-torrent, and bordered with thick jungle and large trees, which greatly interrupted the view: but the height of the trees diminished with the ascent. At about two-thirds from the top, needles and thread, or rather a needle and a thread, were presented on a stone to Buddhoo. The track on several parts of the superior cone was abrupt, and on the shelving rock were cut out steps, with chains fixed along them, to assist pilgrims in ascending and descending.

The apex is surrounded by a wall, in which there are two distinct openings, corresponding to the two tracks by which the mountain can be ascended, one by the route we came, and the other from the district of Suffragam. The area included within the wall is about twenty-three paces long by eighteen broad. Nearly in the centre of the area there is a large rock, one side of which is shelving, and can be easily ascended. On the top of this mass of granite there is a small square wooden shed, which is connected with the rock, as also with the outer wall, by means of heavy chains. The roof and post of this little building we found adorned with flowers and artificial figures made of party-coloured cloth. The use of the shed is to cover the *Sri Pade* (Holy Foot). This impression has been in part formed by the chisel, and partly by elevating its outer border with chunam (lime). Its length is about 5½ feet long, and its breadth above 2½ feet. The depth is irregular, and varies from about 1½ to 2 inches. Much of the margin of the impression, and all the elevations which mark the spaces between the toes, are made of lime and sand. A border of gilded copper, in

in which a few valueless gems are set, encircles the impression. According to the books respecting Buddhoo, it appears that he stepped from the top of the Peak to the kingdom of Siam. The Buddhists profess to believe the impression is a mark made by the last foot of Buddhoo which left Ceylon. But so little did the contrivers of the fable know of geography, that even the direction of the impression is destructive of the credibility of the story regarding the stepping of Buddhoo from Ceylon to Siam.

Owing to the superstitious notions of the natives, and of one of the resident priests, it was not without much difficulty that Mr. Sawers was allowed to pass the night on the top of the Peak. The ceremonies observed by pilgrims of all ages, in presenting their offerings before the holy impression, are minutely detailed. Even the Mussulmans of Hindostan make pilgrimages to this mountain, under the belief that the impression is that of the foot of Adam, our first parent. It is of more consequence to observe, however, that the height of the Peak above the level of the sea, as ascertained by barometrical measurement, is about 6500 feet; commanding a striking view of the very rugged country immediately underneath, and of the trackless forests which extend over most of the island. The rapid formation, dissipation, movements, and transitions of the clouds, under the eyes of the spectators, particularly arrested their attention, convincing them of the existence of various currents of air in the atmosphere; and some appeared even to have a vertical direction. The strata of vapour all subsided during the night, and exhibited, in moonlight, the appearance of a white fleecy mantle, spread over the earth. The temperature of the air, in the shade during the day, varied from 64° to 68° ; and, at three o'clock in the morning, it was $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. By descending in another direction, the party enjoyed an awful and terrific perpendicular view, to the extent of almost the whole height of the Peak.

A striking feature in the moral habits of the Kandyan is polyandry, one woman sufficing for all the brothers of a family, unless they should happen to exceed seven. At the same time, a man may call as many women to his bed as he pleases; and, when he chuses, he may send them back to their relations, provided that he returns the property which they brought with them. Separations of this description are attended with no disgrace to either party: but the privilege of repudiation is not reciprocal; for a woman cannot desert her husband, unless she can prove that he has failed in supplying her with food and clothing suitable to his rank. Another sort of connection is that of a female in her own or in her father's house with one or more males, whom she may dismiss at pleasure.

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The exposure of female infants, born under what an astrologer deems an unlucky star, is far from an uncommon occurrence: but, if the infant be found alive after the first day, it is frequently restored to the mother, who then consents to nurse it. In consequence of a proclamation by the governor, prohibiting infanticide, it is hoped that this barbarous practice will soon be discontinued.

Some Observations on the Falco Chrystallus and Puffinus of Authors, proving the Identity of the two supposed Species. By P. J. Selby, Esq.

Remarks on the different Opinions entertained regarding the specific Distinction, or Identity, of the Ring-tailed and Golden Eagles. By James Wilson, Esq.

We cannot enter on the consideration of the conflicting arguments of these respectable ornithologists: but the reasonings which are adduced by Mr. Wilson appear to us, on the whole, to be the most conclusive, and to establish the non-identity of the species in question.

On the Natural Expedients resorted to by Mark Yarwood, a Cheshire Boy, to supply the Want which he has sustained from Birth, of his Fore-arms and Hands. By S. Hibbert, M.D.—A few instances are recorded of the total privation of arms from birth having been, in some measure, compensated by superior skill and dexterity in the use of the feet and toes: but the case of the subject of this memoir is still more remarkable, since he can write, make a pen, and perform various acts of prehension, by means of two prolongations, one on each stump, but neither of them much exceeding an inch in length. That on the right being well protected with muscles and cellular substance, and that on the left only thinly covered with an integument of skin, the boy, by means of the bony and unyielding extremity of the left stump, can press any solid body which he purposes to carry against the fleshy cushion that invests the termination of the right limb, and thus form for its reception a bed or hollow. The strength and activity with which he wields his stumps, either in parrying or inflicting blows, are well known to his companions; and he has also the reputation of being the best marble-player in the school. The extremities of his stumps are, obviously, indued with a sensibility and accuracy of touch not inferior to those which physiologists have ascribed to the structure of the hands. In performing the more complex acts of feeding or dressing himself, tying a bow, or the like, he has recourse to the organs of the mouth, the knees, toes, &c. It is not a little remarkable that, in the short space of six months, he has been taught to produce very legible writing, which appears from the fac-simile annexed to Dr. Hibbert's interesting account of his feats. — The cases reported

ported in the Appendix are those of individuals deprived of their arms from the shoulder-joint, and obviating the defect by the nearly exclusive use of the feet and toes.

Notice in regard to the Temperature of Mines. By Matthew Miller, Esq., 51st Light Infantry. — The author of this paper ascribes the increased temperature of deep mines, principally, to the condensation of the air transmitted from the surface for the purpose of ventilation: — a simple and ingenious theory, which the facts seem to justify.

Remarks on some of the American Animals of the Genus Felis, particularly on the Jaguar, Felis Onca, Linn. By T. S. Trail, M. D. &c. — The very imperfect manner in which the American species of the feline families of quadrupeds have been described and delineated, even by naturalists of the first eminence, has induced Dr. Trail to lay before the Society the drawing of a beautiful Jaguar from Paraguay, which was some time ago alive in Liverpool; and to describe the *Felis puma*, from the inspection of several skins belonging to Mr. Edmonston, who had killed these animals in the interior of Demerary.

— *Observations on some Species of the Genus Mergus.* By James Wilson, Esq. — The main object of this ingenious paper is to prove that *Mergus merganser* and *M. castor* form the male and female of the same species; and that, consequently, the latter should be cancelled from the nomenclature. The author's reasoning on this long unsettled point chiefly rests on analogical discrepancies observable between individuals of the two sexes, among the other species of *Mergus*; a sufficiently legitimate mode of argumentation, when more direct evidence is unattainable. Mr. Wilson, moreover, indicates a useful discriminating character between the adult of *M. serrator* and *M. merganser*, which so nearly resemble each other externally; namely, that in the latter the bill is uniformly deeper at the base, laterally, and the nostrils farther removed from the frontal feathers, i. e. nearer to the point of the bill than the former.

— *Observations on the Sertularia Cuscuta of Ellis, with a Figure.* By the Rev. John Fleming, D. D. — A small tuft of *Sertularia*, which the author happened to find on the beach in the Frith of Tay, has enabled him to describe it more completely than either Ellis or Pallas appears to have done. Abilgaard's description in the *Zoologia Danica* is more minute: but he probably errs in representing the tentacles as twelve; at least Dr. Fleming could discern only eight; and it is worthy of remark that each of them is furnished laterally with a row of short hairs, or plates. The small egg-shaped bodies,

bodies, in some parts of the branches, are the rudiments of young polypi.—In his forthcoming Synopsis of British Animals, Dr. Fleming purposes to include this species and *S. uva* under a new genus, to be denominated *Walkeria*, as neither of them properly belongs to *Sertularia*.—On the stem of the present species were found specimens of a *Vorticella*, nearly allied to the *citrina* of Muller, and which the author proposes to name *V. coalita*.

Remarks on the Guanaco of South America. By Thomas Stewart Trail, M. D.—Several living specimens of the *Guanaco* having been brought to Liverpool, Dr. Trail availed himself of the opportunity of describing this species at considerable length, and of procuring an accurate drawing of it from the pencil of Mosses, a young artist of great promise.

The specimens brought to Liverpool fed on hay, from which they selected the moister portions. On their arrival they would not taste oats, though they seemed fond of barley; a preference, no doubt, owing to their *Spanish education*: for the horses and mules of Spain will not eat oats, when they can obtain barley. The Guanacoës seemed fond of apples, but would not eat cabbage. They were tame and gentle; seemed to love being caressed by those who approached them, and smelt their hands and clothes; but were impatient when their mouths and ears were handled. They occasionally uttered a faint sound or groan when much teased, and usually accompanied this with a hissing ejaculation of saliva.

On a reversed Species of Fusus (Fusus retroversus). By the Rev. John Fleming, D.D. &c.—This interesting addition to British conchology, three specimens of which the author detected in shell-sand from Noss, in Zetland, scarcely exceeds a line in length. In the figures, it is represented magnified.

Notice of a Specimen of Larus Eburneus, or Ivory Gull, shot in Zetland; and further Remarks on the Iceland Gull. By Laurence Edmonston, Esq.—The specimen in question was that of a lean male, supposed to be of the second year, and shot in December, in Balta Sound.—The author's observations on two individuals, the one killed in the same Sound in April, and the other in the Frith of the Clyde, have led him to the conviction that there are two species of Iceland Gull, namely, the Greater and the Lesser.

Observations on the Formation of the various Lead-Spurs. By Mr. James Braid, Surgeon, Leadhills.—The purport of Mr. Braid's communication is to state the facts and reasoning on which he grounds the opinion, that the other modifications of lead-ore originate in the decomposition of galena; which is the most generally diffused of all the forms of that metal, and which

which will probably be always found in the immediate neighbourhood of the other spars, already more or less affected by the disintegrating action of air and water. The walls of excavations made in the vicinity of galena are observed to be studded over, in the course of a few years, with minute crystals of the carbonate of lead; and an incrustation of the same crystals, or of those of the phosphate, may be remarked on vein-stuff, after it has lain for a few years exposed to the weather. The chemical principles of such transmutations are thus explained:

The lead being oxidized by the oxygen, arising from the decomposition of water, or of air, or both; the oxide of lead will combine with the sulphuric acid, to form sulphate of lead; carbonic acid (which is constantly present in water) may combine with another portion of oxide of lead, and will form the carbonate; this last will be pure, dark, of various shades of black, according to the quantity of decomposed galena present. If oxides of iron or copper be present, they will communicate to the crystals, as they form, various shades, according to their quantity. What are called the new minerals, namely, combinations of carbonate and sulphate of lead, in various proportions, can be easily conceived to occur from being simultaneously formed, and combining as compound crystals. As to the phosphates, I presume the acid must be derived from the surface; and what countenances this opinion is, that the best phosphates have been found either not far from the surface, or in veins which seem to have a pretty free communication with the surface, and to have a plentiful supply of water.

The principal miners at Leadhills, and Professor Irving, who has resided twenty summers on the spot, as agent for the company, are stated to have expressed their concurrence in Mr. Braid's views of the subject: which, however, requires to be more extensively investigated.

Description of a new Species of Larus. By Thomas Stewart Trail, M.D. — This hitherto undescribed Larus, now in the Museum of the Liverpool Institution, is reported to haunt the frozen regions of the Southern Ocean. Dr. Trail has designed it *Larus Scoresbii*, or *Scoresby's Gull*; and he assigns to it the following specific characters: 'Bill strong, and of a vermillion red; legs and feet of the same colour; head, neck, and lower parts pale ash-grey; wings blackish; tail even, white.' Its habits are unknown, though possibly analogous to those of other gulls.

Remarks on the Specific Characters of Birds. By Mr. W. Macgillivray. — According to the received rules for the construction of specific distinctions, Mr. Macgillivray contends that those which are adopted by ornithologists are generally
vague

vague and fallacious; especially when deduced from the colors of the plumage, on which so much stress is uniformly laid. The markings of the bill; legs, claws, &c. have also been pressed into the service of discrimination; and some systematical writers have much insisted on the color of the iris. In proving the inadequacy of these particulars for the purposes of stable and precise distribution, the author only illustrates what the most enlightened naturalist will not deny, namely, the imperfection of all human arrangements of the infinitely diversified productions of the animal kingdom. As long as external characters form the basis of the ornithological nomenclature, the coloring of the feathers, however liable to vary from age, sex, climate, or domestication, cannot well be overlooked. Its exclusive use may, indeed, prove incompetent to correct recognition: but the same remark may, perhaps, be found to apply to the structure and forms of the feathers, on which the essayist would preferably found his distinctions. His suggestions are, however, plausible and ingenious: they may be of service in simplifying some loose and diffuse definitions; and, even if partially adopted, they may occasionally suffice for discrimination, when other tests prove doubtful or fallacious.

Notes on the Geognosy of Crif-Fell, Kirkbean, and the Needle's Eye, in Galloway. By Professor Jameson. — The syenitic range of Criffel, which forms a junction with the transition-rocks of Dumfries-shire, is composed of grey felspar, green hornblend, grey quartz, and brown-colored mica; and it is generally of a granular structure: but some varieties are slaty, and others are formed of contemporaneous portions of the substance of the respective ingredients. A fine-grained, compact, and slaty syenite reposes on strata above that of a coarse granular structure. The hills above New Abbey are of granite and syenite, in which are included numerous crystals of sphene, and a few crystals and grains of hyacinth. Near to Earse, and not far from Kirkbean, a principal coal-formation occurs, covered with alluvial strata of clay, gravel, peat, &c. The strata indicative of coal are here sand-stone, mountain or secondary lime-stone, (abounding in petrified corals, particularly madriporcs of great beauty,) slate clay, bituminous shale, and clay iron-stone. — The *Needle's Eye*, a singular perforated rock of syenite and slaty felspar, variously blended, has been already described by Sir James Hall, in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. 'The rocks of the Needle's Eye and the neighbourhood,' says Professor Jameson, 'afforded to the active and enterprising mind of Sir James Hall proofs in favour of the Huttonian

Huttonian theory of the earth; to me they are interesting as illustrations of the doctrine of contemporaneous formation.

Observations on the Anatomy of the Beaver, (Castor Fiber, Linn.) *considered as an aquatic Animal*. By R. Knox, Esq., M.D. — In the course of dissecting two young female beavers, Dr. Knox's attention was arrested by the presence of an extensive sinus, or receptacle for the blood, situated close to and above the liver; and he presumes that, by the aid of this apparatus, respiration can be for some time suspended, and the animal enabled to remain longer under water than it could if deprived of such an accommodation. The existence of analogous venous sinuses in aquatic animals appears to strengthen the conjecture.

Speculations in regard to the Formation of Opal, Wood-stone, and Diamond. By Professor Jameson. — As opal and horn-stone coincide in many of their geological relations with carbon, the essential matter of diamond, it is fair to conjecture that the latter may be found in repositories similar to those of the former. Opal and wood-stone have been traced in the primitive, secondary, and alluvial formations, and even in the vegetable constitution of *tabasheer*, which may be regarded as an opaline secretion. The Professor exhibited to the Society a remarkable specimen of wood-stone, eight inches long, five inches thick, and eight inches broad, which was extracted from the interior of a log of teak-wood, in one of the dock-yards of Calcutta. Carbon, in its pure or crystallized state, — or, in other words, diamond, — is of more sparing occurrence: but it has been detected in primitive, secondary, and alluvial repositories; and, in some particular situations, it may still be gradually forming. Its existence in the vegetable structure has never, we believe, been proved: but the author endeavors to catch it napping in the ligneous fibre, and thus to make out his case of analogies. 'Certain woods,' he says, 'which have not the gritty feel of those that contain silica, are uncommonly hard, dark coloured, and take a high polish; these, I conjecture, may be somewhat of an adamantine nature. If this should prove to be the case, it would neither be surprising nor unexpected, that such trees may secrete carbon in the adamantine state; which, on being removed from the influence of the living principle of the plant, would, by the power of affinity, form into true diamonds; — just as the silica secreted from the bamboo takes the form of opal, and that from teak-wood the characters of horn-stone.'

Notice regarding the Map of Mackenzie's River. By Mr. W. F. Wenzel, of the North-West Fur Company. — Together with

with this map, which is the best delineation of Mackenzie's river that has hitherto appeared, Mr. Wenzel transmitted to the president of the Society a few detached memoranda relative to different tribes of Indians, and other remarkable objects that fell under his observation. We may select the following: 'An edible earth is found below the forks, which is described as unctuous clay, which the Indians eat from choice. The Strong-Bow Indians observed a meteoric stone, several feet in diameter, to fall from the sky. It had a bad smell, and its fall was attended with a report like thunder. The year is unknown, but it was since 1795, when the traders first established themselves there.'

Observations on some Species of the Genus Vermiculum of Montagu. By the Rev. John Fleming, D. D. &c. — As the variable forms of the chambers in these species are inadequate marks of distinction, Dr. Fleming has had recourse to the magnified appearances of the permanent conditions of the mouth, and thus establishes the characters of *V. intortum*, *oblongum*, *subrotundum*, and *lacteum*.

Notice in regard to Marine Shells found in the Line of the Ardrossan Canal. By Captain Laskey. — These shells were found in cutting a bed of sand and clay, about 40 feet above the present level of the Clyde, and nearly four miles from Glasgow. Twenty-two species are particularized, all of them at present inhabitants of the Frith of Clyde, but only below Dumbarton, or where the water is permanently salt.

From the Appendix to the present volume, or the continuation of the History of the Society, we select a few of the more prominent notices.

The case containing the mummy, presented to the Museum of the University of Edinburgh by Colonel Stratton, was opened in that gentleman's presence, and the contents proved to be a female of the Arab-European race, of very high antiquity. — 'The Secretary read a note communicated by Mr. Trevelyan, of an experiment made at Hawick, by inclosing a living toad in a small chamber under ground for the space of more than two years, at the end of which time the animal appeared as healthy as when inclosed.' — A very fine specimen of *Calamus rotang*, originally 250 feet in length, was exhibited. — The President exhibited a mammoth's tusk, 6½ feet long, dug up at Rugby, in Warwickshire. — 'Dr. Yule communicated specimens of maize ripened in Scotland, and made some observations on the practicability of naturalizing that grain.' — Professor Jameson 'exhibited the horn of a rhinoceros, found in one of the marl-pits of the Loch of Forfar.'

From

From the preceding brief analysis, it will be apparent that the communications of this Society continue to attest the unabated activity of the distinguished President and his spirited coadjutors.

ART. X. *Journal of a Tour in France, Switzerland, and Italy, during the Years 1819, 1820, and 1821. Illustrated by Fifty Lithographic Prints, from original Drawings taken in Italy, the Alps, and the Pyrenees. By Marianne Colston. 2 Vols. 8vo. Whittakers, 1823.*

WE are by no means disposed, as we have often declared, to discountenance the attempts of our fair countrywomen in the species of writing of which the book before us is a specimen. Abundantly as we have been of late supplied with tours on the Continent, and scarcely looking for novelty or instruction when a volume of travels over that region is put into our hands, we naturally expect from female travellers livelier descriptions of the little incidents which befall them, and more animated delineations of the impressions produced by the successive objects of the journey. We have not been wholly disappointed in this respect by Mrs. Colston; though she must pardon us if we venture to hint that there is a certain class of personal occurrences, which, however interesting to the writer or the circle of her private friends, are not of the highest moment to those who read for instruction or pleasure. It is highly laudable, for instance, that a lady just married should admire her husband; and the expression of such feelings is the more excusable in Mrs. Colston, since it appears that she commenced her travels immediately after 'the Gordian knot' had been tied: but we were inclined to think that her 'caro sposo,' as she so often Italianizes 'her truly English husband,' is too frequently and unnecessarily introduced; and we have observed in her, moreover, too much of that disposition to grumble at little annoyances which is so characteristic of inexperienced English travellers. The inconveniences, to which she seemed so sensitive on her first arrival in France, were such as must be endured by all who choose to leave the comforts of their own country, or such as common caution might have avoided; and we can speak from good authority when we say that the Custom-house officers are not more inquisitorial at Havre, where she was so much displeased, than they are at Dover. On both sides of the water, they have duties to perform, and it is of the very essence of those duties that they should be inquisitors.

We extract the author's short description of Rouen, which is, on the whole, just and accurate.

' We proceeded without further adventure till we arrived at Rouen, the environs of which are delightful. The broad winding road between wooded hills, by which we descended to the plain in which this city lies, is as beautiful of its kind as any scenery I can imagine. On reaching the bottom of the hill, Rouen is entered through a very long and fine avenue, the only defect of which is, that all the trees are cut and clipped into as much similarity as could be given them, to a green wall, instead of being suffered to wave in all their natural irregular luxuriance. But after this magnificent and beautiful approach, what is the traveller's disappointment when he enters the narrow streets, and sees the miserable looking houses of Rouen ! The filth and smell of the streets are intolerable, and I could not walk them without feeling a degree of nausea which it was difficult to bear. The rain which had fallen in the morning increased the unpleasantness of walking in the dirty and unpaved streets, and altogether I never remember so uncomfortable a promenade. We visited, however, the library, which is a noble room ; the picture-gallery ; the church of St. Owen (*St. Ouen*), and what delighted me most, the fine cathedral, in the Norman-gothic style, built by William the Conqueror. The rich and beautiful effect of its exterior is considerably impaired by two trumpery spires, covered with slate, erected on the summit of the towers, which are quite incongruous with the rest of the edifice. In the interior, two females were kneeling before the steps of the altar, but they had not that abstractedness of devotion which I have observed and admired among some Roman Catholics in England. As we were viewing the exterior, a bird of exquisitely beautiful plumage, a little resembling a king-fisher, amused itself by flying from niche to niche of the sacred edifice ; we had never seen such a bird in England, and were unable to determine its name. Its lovely colours, varied and marked like the wings of a butterfly, and disporting round the majestic buttresses, suggested the idea of beauty adorning piety.

' From hence we walked to the bridge of boats, a curious and ingenious construction, from which we admired the beautiful view of the Seine, here a noble river ; the shipping, and the fine hill which rises boldly behind the city, terminating in the avenue of trees which forms the approach on the side towards Paris.'

As Mrs. Colston's first visit to Paris was short, we are not detained by lengthened descriptions of the various subjects which gratify the eye and the mind in that metropolis, but the magnificent gallery of the Louvre is thus noticed :

' What a splendid combination of architecture, sculpture, painting, marbles, and gilding, here offer themselves to the delighted spectator ! and how powerful is their effect on natives of our colder clime, where the fine arts exert their powers as it were individually and

and alone, (and it must be confessed, with no mean success in particular instances,) but yet produce feeble effects when compared with the fascinating influence of their combined beauties. Our time at Paris being limited by the necessity of proceeding to Italy directly, in order to reach it before the winter set in, we were obliged to hurry through the Louvre in one morning; it was therefore impossible to do more than form a general idea of the paintings and statues it contains, and I shall confine myself at present to a very few observations. The exhibition being now open, the greater part of the paintings of the ancient masters were concealed by those of living artists, an arrangement which is much to be regretted. From the hasty survey I have as yet made of the Louvre, I should say that the art of painting is in a flourishing state in France: there are several performances by ladies, which do great credit to the genius and industry of our sex in this country. The works of Vernet and Granet are all excellent. Amongst those we particularly admired, was a view of the choir of the church of the Capucins at Rome, by Granet: the illusion produced by the perspective, and admirable management of the clair obscur, is such, that after contemplating it for some minutes you can hardly believe the scene is only a pictured one. A Christ appeasing the tempest, by Dubufe, a view of the Church of the Invalids, by Genillion, and a landscape, by Watelet, we thought particularly good; likewise a picture of the attack of a French convoy by the Spanish army, in 1812, painted by General le Jeune; the knighthood of Francis I., by Fragonard; some flowers, inimitably painted, by Vandael; and Cupid quitting Psyche, by Pigot. But after awarding this due meed of praise, truth compels me to say that there are many miserable daubs, little better than sign-post painting, perhaps inferior to the signs at Rouen, which are, generally speaking, really pretty paintings. Mr. B. turned from several with disgust, complaining that they hurt his eyes. When we reached the further end of the gallery, we had the gratification of seeing the works of the ancient masters, which were there unconcealed by modern pictures; after a few minutes, when our eyes had recovered from the glaring colouring of the moderns, which at first makes the works of older time appear sombre, we enjoyed with delight the chaste harmonious beauties of the latter, which, like nature herself, improve upon our gaze, and delight the more, the longer we contemplate them. There is in them a truth, a reality, a simplicity and force, which satisfy the eye, and lead the mind to the most pleasing trains of thought. A Holy Family, by Raphael, we noticed with admiration; but here it would be in vain to particularize.

The fair traveller's journey over the Alps naturally abounds with those affrights and terrors, which it might have been deemed unfeminine not to feel in climbing rugged precipices and passing close to yawning abysses; and we confess that, although the record of these terrors occurs rather

too frequently, we are pleased with the *naïveté* and ingenuousness with which she acknowledges her emotions.

‘ On reaching the next post, we were again delayed two hours by the want of horses, and such was our anxiety to reach the Mount-Cenis before the snow, frost, or wind, rendered its passage more difficult, that I agreed to my *caro sposo*’s proposal to travel all night if we could procure horses. We set out at six o’clock, under the favourable auspices of a beautiful moonlight, and the effect of the scenery of the Alps under such an aspect was grand and impressive. We reached the next post, St. Jean de Maurienne, tolerably well; but we were here again delayed for more than a couple of hours from the same cause as before. We therefore, at this place, took our dinner and supper together, for we had made no other meal than a substantial breakfast in the middle of the day, although it was now half after ten at night. After having partaken of a repast, which, though cooked and served up by hands dirty enough to make one sick, hunger compelled us to think excellent, I lay down on a bed for the other hour, and enjoyed the refreshment of a little sleep, which I greatly needed from the fatigues I had undergone, and those I had yet to encounter.

‘ We again set out between twelve and one o’clock, and proceeded through defiles of grand rocks; a great deal of snow lay on our road, and a mountain-torrent roared along by its side; at intervals a few stones were placed as a defence against the river. Thus situated, we were unfortunate enough to have a sleepy postillion, who had driven some of the party who preceded us on our route the night before. He three times drove us off the road, and nearly tumbled us into the torrent below; but providentially we were on the look out, and prevented any accident, by suddenly calling to him to stop. T. kept the pistols with which he was furnished ready for instant use, expecting that a wolf might spring out upon us. The black wolves of the Alps are the most savage of their species, and when the snow lies deep on the ground, so that they can get no food in the woods, hunger drives them to the road-side. A few months ago, had I been told that I should travel all night, in the depths of the snow, through the dreary solitudes of the Alps, I should have thought that night must have been my last; and to confess the truth, sometimes expecting the postillion to deposit us in the mountain-torrent; at others, fancying that I heard the half barking, half howling sound of wolves in the distance, I did not pass a very agreeable night. I have since been assured that no wolves would attack a carriage, as the noise of its motion frightens them. The cold was so intense during the night, that T., who remained outside to guard us from danger of every kind, nearly lost the use of his limbs; and notwithstanding the precaution of a fire in the chaud-pied and warm clothing, I suffered considerably from it.

‘ At length another fine morning dawned upon us, and dispelled the alarms of the night. The first sight that struck me on awaking from

from a little sleep, was the carriage-windows covered with more beautiful congelations, and more perfect in their forms, than any I ever saw : we observed various kinds of leaves, traced nearly to the life, upon the glass. As soon as the coldness of the atmosphere permitted, we opened some of the windows, and saw the summits of the mountains *lit* up with a deep rose-coloured tint by the rising sun. We appeared to be amidst the tops of rocks, from some of which a torrent rushed through the deep channel it had worn. We saw icicles hanging from the rocks several yards in length.

Having surmounted the ordinary difficulties which are experienced by all travellers over the Alps and the Appennines, Mrs. C. at length arrived at Florence.—All her readers, perhaps, will not sympathize in her apparent preference of Alfieri to Shakspeare: but it may be fair to copy her remarks.

The feeling of the Florentines on the subject of their lost liberty is clearly evinced by an anecdote related to me by a very respectable and well-informed individual here. The tragedies of Alfieri, it is hardly necessary to say, breathe the very soul of freedom; and not only the natives of this city, but the Italians in general, cherish for his writings the most enthusiastic admiration. His drama on the highly tragical subject of the assassination of Giuliano de Medici, during the performance of the sacred mysteries in the Dome at Florence, (when the noble family of the Pazzis vainly attempted to restore to the inhabitants their liberty,) has been always a forbidden subject for representation on the stage. But when Bonaparte expelled the Grand Duke, and established a prefect here, the latter, not aware of the consequences, permitted "*La Congiura de' Pazzi*" to be performed. A descendant of this noble house lent for the occasion an ancient dress, such as the Gonsfalone (the first magistrate in their former republic) always wore, and the identical one which had arrayed the limbs of the unfortunate Raimondo Pazzi, the head of the conspiracy, and the last who bore that office. The exalted sentiments of freedom which this noble composition breathes, the sight of their ancient magistrate in the actual garb of liberty, fired to frenzy the ardent feelings of the Florentines:—before the performance was half ended, the city was in a tumult—"Gridi, Uri!" as my Italian narrator informed me, frequently filled the theatre; and again the audience were silenced in breathless expectation (like the waves of the sea during the momentary intermission of a tempest), till they again caught another glowing and inspiring expression. The French governor was recommended to stop the representation; but he wisely replied, that it was more prudent to shew the people he did not fear them: he therefore contented himself with doubling the constables, ordering out the guards, etc. Here was indeed a striking instance of the power of poetry!

'I cannot sufficiently express my admiration of the sublime simplicity of sentiment and diction which characterize this celebrated

brated writer, but I confess that I feel more gratification in hearing them read by my excellent instructor in the Italian language, Signor Guido Sorelli, than in seeing them acted. This preference may in part be attributed to the deficiencies of the actors; for although in "Saul" this principal character was sustained in an admirable and wonderful manner by Rocchetti; and the same expression may be applied to Signora Marchionni, who acted the part of the Princess in "Mirra;" all the other characters were so ill sustained as greatly to impair the interest. The subject of "Mirra," although managed by the poet with the greatest possible delicacy, is yet so disgusting to English feelings, as to absorb every other emotion in that of horror, and in our island I do not think the representation of it would be tolerated; but such is the difference of national character, that the Italians esteem this the most deeply interesting of all Alfieri's tragedies, and, the theatre was three following nights crowded to witness its performance.

Before I dismiss this subject, I will confess that the tragedies of this author inspire me with a higher interest than those even of our Shakspeare. The latter is indeed infinitely more varied, and his exquisitely beautiful sentiments are a source of inexhaustible delight; but as to the interest of the drama, I frequently find mine chilled when just excited in the liveliest manner, by the introduction of passages of levity, and too frequently of impropriety; whilst Alfieri's drama inspires an uninterrupted and deep tragic interest, (sustained by the force of passion, the dignity of sentiment, and majesty of diction,) which not an instant slackens its hold on the reader's soul, until it reaches the fatal catastrophe. It is but justice to add, that no morality can be more pure or more noble than that inculcated by this great poet. I regret to add, that here, where his works are held in such esteem, and where he so long resided, the man is not remembered with affection or veneration proportioned to the admiration in which they hold the writer. Not to allude to irregularities in morals, the haughty, aristocratic pride which he shewed to his inferiors ill accorded with the generous sentiments, or with the republican opinions with which his compositions are filled; nor did he with genuine magnanimity extend his fostering and powerful protection to humble merit.

Mrs. C. next comments on the usual subjects that attract the notice of strangers at Florence;—improvisatoris, the opera, the cathedral, the churches of St. Lorenzo, Santa Annunziata, St. Marco, &c. &c. &c. In the church of Santa Croce is the exquisite mausoleum of Alfieri, designed by Canova; and the still more beautiful monument of Michael Angelo, in which three statues, representing Sculpture, Architecture, and Painting, the work of Giovanni del Opera, Valerio Cioli, and Batista del Cavaliere, three pupils of that great master, surround the urn. Above these is the bust of Buonarroti.

Buonarroti. Mrs. C. is contented with a cursory notice of the celebrated gallery, and we are disposed to commend her forbearance on a subject which has exercised so many pens, and produced so many critical and elaborate dissertations.

Little that requires notice now occurs in the author's journal till she reaches Rome; where her first visit was to the 'Janiculum Mount.' The customary portion of description is dedicated to the Coliseum, the golden palace of Nero, the Villa Albani, and the interesting collection of statues, basso-relievos, &c., that it contains. It would be unfair to exact from a lady the accuracy of a professed antiquary: but we may be permitted to remark on one or two symptoms of incorrectness in her description of the Temple of Minerva Medica, which she calls 'one of the finest monuments of antiquity;' and which is composed, she tells us, (p. 150.) of arches forming the figure of a decagon. Both these observations are too inconsiderately made. It is indeed a picturesque ruin, but certainly does not deserve to be called a fine monument of antiquity; and in fact little of it (for it was originally brick) can be said to remain: but the yawning chasms in its vaulted roof, the wild weeds that wave over it, the fallen masses which choke it up, the total destruction that threatens it, and the awful solitude that surrounds it, endow it with an interest and a charm which it perhaps never had in its state of perfect preservation. In the next place, its form is circular, and it is decagonal only in the interior. — Having mentioned this building, which successive antiquaries have named a temple, a bath, and a basilica, we must not omit to state that Nardini's conjecture is highly probable that it was part of the palace of Licinius, which undoubtedly stood on the same spot. It was evidently connected with other buildings, because remains of walls diverging on each side are still visible: but the style of the architecture, and the comparative coarseness of the brick-work, betray the declining period of the age; and the best judges pronounce it not to be earlier than the age of Diocletian.

We extract Mrs. C.'s visit to the Catacombs, and the Circus of Caracalla:

'We descended, and by the direction of our guide, and the light of torches, groped our way through these labyrinths in several directions. The bones are now all removed, but the vacancies of the coffins, and some of the inscriptions, remain. These caverns, which were originally excavated by the Romans, in digging for puzzolano, were used by the primitive Christians both as mausoleums, and as places of refuge from the fury of persecution. We saw a little square chamber, about ten feet large, in which one of the persecuted Christians is said to have

resided for ten years. How different, alas! were the faith and zeal of the primitive Christians from ours! How should we support such privations, sufferings, and terrors, as they, unrepiningly, endured?

' In the direction of Ostia, this subterraneous passage extends for fifteen miles. The entrance to this road of darkness is partly choked up, and the arch is now not more than between two and three feet high, so that the pilgrimage is certainly not a very inviting one. Near this Basilica are seen the ruins of a circular building, which, from its proximity to the Circus of Caracalla, evidently appears to have had some connection with it, and is by some antiquaries conjectured to have been the receptacle for the gags, and horses which were exercised there; and, by others, to have been the place where the riders equipped themselves for the races. In surveying the ruins of ancient Rome, how often, with our great poet, do we feel, that

" She is as the desert, where we steer,
Stumbling o'er recollections —"

" We but feel our way to err." *Childe Harold*, c. iv.

' Passing by a monument, which is said to have been the sepulchre of the Servilian family, we soon reached " the stern round tower of other days;" the tomb of Cecilia Metella. The massive strength of its walls, which are 30 feet in thickness, and have resisted the force of ages; its picturesque form, " crown'd with its garland of eternity;" its destination, all conspire to render it an object of high interest to the beholder. But I must confess myself indebted to the creative imagination of Lord Byron, which has indeed " thrown a sun-set charm around this Hesperus of the dead," for much of the emotion with which I viewed it. It is, I think, to be regretted, that the sarcophagus, which contains Metella's ashes, has been removed to the court of the Farnese palace.

' We saw, at a little distance, a circular ruin, which is said to be the remains of the Temple of Honour and Virtue, erected by the Consul M. Marcellus, who so placed these two edifices, that the Temple of Honour could only be entered through that of Virtue. This was an idea worthy of the best times of ancient Rome.

' We now quitted our carriage, and enjoyed a walk through the Circus of Caracalla; which the beauty of the day, added to the interest of treading classic ground, rendered delightful. This circus is the best preserved of all the Roman edifices of this kind, and the only one from which a just idea of them can be derived. The remains consist of the surrounding walls, to which were attached the seats of the spectators. Some say these were capable of containing 30,000 people; other learned authors maintain that they could only hold 20,000.

' Some vestiges of the ancient bounds remain, as well as the gate through which the conquerors passed in triumph to the Latian Way. Now, where thousands thronged, and cars of triumph held their thundering course, violets bloom, and perfume the

the air with their fragrance; pressed only by the hand of the musing wanderer, who calls with veneration the sweet offspring of this historic earth.

Ferrara, Venice, Milan, Como, and Swisserland, are successively visited by this fair tourist. In the following passage, with which we must close our article, she displays commendable powers of description.

Neuchâtel, Oct. 26. — This morning was uncommonly fine for the season of the year, and we enjoyed from the margin of the lake, and from the pier, a most delightful view of nearly the whole range of the Swiss Alps. In a still remoter distance, the Mont Blanc is likewise visible on a very clear day, but I believe we did not see it. The wind was high, and the extensive lake of Neuchâtel, bounded by such grand mountains, with its waves foaming and dashing on the pebbly shore on which we stood, resembled a sea in every respect, excepting the color of its waters.

The town is finely situated on a rising ground above the lake, and we passed several very handsome houses in its environs. The public promenade above the lake is quite delightful, commanding the charming view which I have just mentioned, so that this capital possesses altogether many attractions, at least for me. The torrent of the Scyon, which takes its rise in the Val de Ruz, falls into the lake almost close to our inn (*Aux Balances*) in this town. The banks of the lake are covered with vines, and the wine made from them is excellent. The weather, being so favourable, allowed us to make an excursion to the Lac de Bienne, enjoying, the whole way to it, the same grand view of the distant mountains.

This lake is three leagues long and one wide; it is pretty, and its borders are enlivened by a number of villages. It is bounded, on the south-east, by low wooded hills, above which are seen the majestic Alps. The water being now pretty calm, we embarked at the village of Teuffelen, and rowed to the island of St. Pierre, which was the object of our visit to this lake. The boat was in the midst of reeds during nearly the whole passage, but the water was deep at a very short distance from us. The beautiful little island of St. Pierre (which has been called the Green Isle) rises literally like a gem from the bosom of the water. It is three quarters of a mile in circumference, and is one of the most lovely spots that I have yet seen. It is indeed unique, and looks calculated to be the abode of fairies or enchantresses, or any such aerial beings, rather than for those of grosser mould. It was indeed eminently suited for the residence of the enchanter in flesh and blood, Rousseau, who here passed two months, which he often afterwards asserted were the happiest of his life. Such a scene, so beautiful, so secluded, is calculated to inspire those sentiments, "not of earth," which his writings breathe; faulty, as unhappily they are in their principles and tendency. Here the irritability of unbounded pride, and morbid sensibility, were soothed by the loveliness of nature, which seems as if, in this spot, she sought a retreat where

where evil and sorrow should not enter. He resided in the family of the intendant of the island, appointed by the canton of Neuchâtel; and if the accounts of his life do not deceive us, this usually morose, unsocial being, in the bosom of this little family, allowed the affections of his heart to expand; at the same time that he exerted the powers of his wonderful mind for their gratification, in such a manner as to become an inmate perfectly delightful. We were shewn his little room, commanding a full view of the sublime Bernese Oberlands.

This island rises with a gentle slope from the water, to the height of one hundred and twenty-one feet in its most elevated part. The sides are covered with verdant turf and wood, and the higher part is embellished with magnificent oaks, between which is a broad and delightful walk. On the summit is a pavilion, in which, on Sundays, (for the canton of Neuchâtel is Catholic,) the youthful inhabitants of all the towns and villages on the lake continually come to dance. From hence is seen, on one side, the pretty village of Cerlier, on the opposite shore of the lake; on the other, the distant mountains, whose snowy summits, contrasted with the verdure of this emerald isle, and the bright blue waters of the lake, offer altogether a picture of perfect beauty. It was indeed late in the season for our enjoyment of these charms, but fortunately for us, two or three hours of this day were like summer; and owing, I suppose, to its situation, sheltered by the hills enclosing the lake, the leaves which remained on the trees, and the surface of the island, were still green, though the surrounding hills looked brown and wintry. St. Pierre might well deserve the name of *Isola Bella*; in fact, the latter can no more be compared with the natural beauties of the former, than a plain woman rouged, and set off by a gay dress, can stand a comparison with graceful beauty in simple attire:

“ When unadorn'd, adorn'd the most.”

We were obliged to hasten from this lovely spot, which will ever remain engraven on my memory, as the wind had risen, and was unfavourable to our return. Indeed our four rowers had rather hard work to get us back; for though the lake is in this part very shallow, the wind was so high, that there were great waves on it. An English family, who made this little voyage an hour after us, had still greater difficulty in returning, and were obliged to wait some time before the state of the lake allowed them to venture on its surface. Providentially we reached the land without accident, and returned to Neuchâtel to dinner. My little darling accompanied me on this expedition; as being her nurse, I could not well leave her for so long a time; and though the wind, on our return, was very cold, she sustained no injury. At night the wind rose so high, that I was almost fearful that our inn, situated close to the lake, would be thrown down by it.

High praise applied to a work which cannot of necessity have any pretensions to originality, or profundity, would be misplaced

misplaced and insincere: yet, although Mrs. Colston has seen and described only what has been seen and described by others, her pages will give pleasure to those readers who do not require scientific information, nor profound remark, nor elaborate research, in a book of travels, but are amused by light and transient descriptions, expressed in easy language, though not always correct and elegant. The fair author appears to have the pen of a "ready writer," and to have inserted in her note-book all the occurrences, even the most minute, of each day's movements, and all her daily thoughts and feelings, with most active perseverance: but it was not necessary, nor well judged, to communicate all this to the public without revision and selection. Her quotations, too, and recollections of anecdotes, are often erroneous. Respect for the motives which suggested the insertion of so much of her mother's poetry will restrain us from animadverting on it harshly or ungently.

We cannot speak of the prints which the title-page mentions as ornamenting this work, our copy of it being unprovided with them. We suppose that they are sold separately.

ART. XI. *A Voice from London to the Voice from St. Helena; or the Pitt System developed, &c. &c.* By Peter Moore, Esq. M.P. 8vo. pp. 160. 9s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1823.

THE contents of this volume are, first, a rambling Preface occupying one third of it; 2dly, the History of two Missions to France to treat with Napoleon for Peace in 1799 and 1801, by Mr. Massaria; 3dly, a Letter from Napoleon to George III. sent to Mr. Massaria, on receiving telegraphic intelligence of his proceeding to Paris with overtures for Peace with England; 4thly, a Proclamation of Napoleon in consequence of the Answer to his Letter by our Government, on which was formed the Army of Reserve at Dijon; 5thly, an Address to the French People in 1788, mentioned by Mr. Massaria; and, lastly, a Letter from the Editor to the late Earl of Macartney, on the Pacific System of Napoleon, dated July, 1801, with an Introductory Elucidation.

It is the hopeless object of the Preface to prove that the general principles and policy of Napoleon were pacific, and designed for the 'repose of the world.' We must remember, however, that he spared the inglorious and ungrateful monarchs whom he vanquished, and raised their prostrate thrones; and that all his continental enemies, at some time or another, were in his power and at his absolute disposal, had he thirsted
for

for their blood. Yet he replaced the fallen crowns on their unworthy heads, evacuated their captured cities, and restored their conquered provinces. 'These achievements,' says Mr. Moore, 'remain indelible proofs of magnanimity, of clemency, and of moderation which had no boundaries but in the good of the nation which had called him to reign over it, and in the common pacific welfare of its neighbours.'

Of the personal and private character of Napoleon, the world has now sufficient documents to form a just estimate. The publications of Mr. O'Meara and of Count Las Cases are, in this respect, invaluable; their authority seems unquestionable; and it will not be denied that the conversations which these gentlemen have recorded, and the anecdotes which they have related, are eminently favourable to the feelings of Napoleon's heart. In his political capacity, however, he was a despot: seeking the glory of France rather than the good of it; military aggrandisement abroad, with "a death-like silence and a dread repose" at home. Every body knows how much annoyed he was with the pitiful libels which issued against him from the London press, and which he degraded himself by noticing; and every body remembers, not indeed the despicable lampoons in *L'Ambigu*, but the splendid and magnificent oration of Sir James Mackintosh in the Court of King's Bench, 1803, in defence of Peltier, who was tried for a libel against the First Consul of the French republic, for republishing those libels. His ambition was personal. With "surpassing glory crowned," he

"Looked from his sole dominion like the god
Of this new world, at whose sight all the stars
Hide their diminished heads."

The kings whom he created, whether his brothers or his Generals, were to be his vassals, and no longer kings than vassals: — witness Holland, witness Naples. Had Napoleon given to France a free constitution, and to the countries which he subdued the means of establishing representative governments for themselves, we should have had no difficulty in agreeing with the eulogy of Mr. Moore: but, with a power and an influence in the world which no mortal man ever enjoyed before, he did neither. In denying, however, that he was the friend of peace and of liberty, we are not asserting, *per contra*, that his enemies were. In one sense of the word, indeed, he was the friend of peace: when he had overrun the Continent and placed his obsequious puppets on their dependent thrones, he was unquestionably sincere in the pacific system: it was his desire then, and it was his interest, to

be at peace, and particularly with the English cabinet. He could have no wish to be disturbed in the enjoyment of his spoil, and to put the possession of it into jeopardy: but that 'he wished in every independent state a condition of freedom for the people' is disproved by the history of his deeds in Spain, Switzerland, Italy, and in short wherever his authority was recognized. In the various negotiations for peace, between France and England, each cabinet was suspicious of the sincerity of the other; and, for the reasons above stated, the cabinet of the Tuilleries had more ground to be suspicious than that of St. James's. When Mr. Fox obtained the Foreign Department in 1806, Napoleon knew very well that he had to deal with an ingenuous and straight-forward character, and he discarded the suspicions which he had entertained before.

As to Mr. Massaria's 'Documents,' — that is, his History of two Missions from the British Ministers to Napoleon, — they form only a meagre and barren narrative, comprized in less than ten pages; and introduced by preliminary matter unconnected with the missions, except that it states Mr. Massaria to be a native of Corsica; to have been long attached to this country; to have been so intimately acquainted with the brothers of Bonaparte, who were likewise attached to the English interests, as to have been called with them, *Anglo-maniacs*, by the French royalists in Corsica at the early part of the Revolution; to have once saved Napoleon from being arrested at the order of General Paoli; and, in consequence of this act of personal friendship, to have been selected by the late General Sir Charles Stuart, in December, 1789, as a fit messenger of peace to the First Consul. On landing at Calais, and refusing to disclose his business, he was put under arrest:

'In that situation, 'he says,' I remained, till late in the evening of the third day, when in consequence of my letter to Joseph Buonaparte, the municipality received orders by the telegraph to forward me to Paris, and on my arrival, I should immediately meet the Minister for Foreign Affairs: and, the next morning, came to my bed-side, by order of Buonaparte, the messenger who brought his letter to the King, to apprise me of his mission in consequence. I immediately set out for Paris, and arrived in less than thirty hours. I immediately met the Minister, who told me, the First Consul wished very much to see me, and that the most proper time to see the First Consul would be at ten that evening. I went at the appointed time; but he being in council, I did not see the Chief Consul till two in the morning, when I met him, in a warm bath, by his bed-side. The report of the conference, with him that night I delivered to the late Sir Charles Stuart on my return, which, together with a copy of my plan for the establishment of an honorable and solid peace, between this country and France, which

which I had given to Joseph Buonaparte, and the minute of a letter from the late Sir C. Stuart to the late Mr. Pitt, will be found in the office of the Secretary of State for the War Department, as the son of the late Sir Charles informed me, after his father's death, he had been directed to carry them to his cousin Lord Buckinghamshire, then Secretary of State for that department.

'There will be found the most advantageous offers made to me, in words, by the First Consul, and afterwards, by M. Talleyrand, in writing, which, in substance, were as follows:—

'As, in my memorial, I had expressed, that I had not any charge, but to know his intention, about concluding a solid and honorable peace, and to report the real situation of things, I declared, that what followed, was only my private opinion; which was in a few words, that, in order to conclude an honorable, solid, and speedy peace, without the least interference of any other power, England and France should agree together, not only about their private interests, but those of their allies; being convinced, that no power, even though discontented with what they might establish, would be able to form any considerable opposition. The allies of Great Britain were, the Emperor of Germany, the King of Sardinia, and the Prince Stadtholder. The Chief Consul replied immediately, that he was ready to restore the Low Countries to Austria, and accept the preliminaries of Lord Malmesbury at Lisle, and to contribute with this country to the restoration of the King of Sardinia.—As to the last, the Stadtholder, he gave me no answer, from which I concluded, that this point was already settled with the King of Prussia. But, on putting an end to the conference, he told me, that by the liberal offers he was ready to make, he would make the British government popular.'

'Unfortunately,' adds Mr. Massaria, 'almost in the same moment that I was about to quit Paris, charged with the most liberal offers, came the answer to Bonaparte's letter to the King, and the reports in the London papers of the speeches in Parliament relating to it.' These, it seems, occasioned such surprize and indignation, that when Mr. Massaria went the next morning, according to appointment, for his passport, M. Talleyrand not only refused it, but demanded the return of the paper in his own hand-writing which contained the 'liberal offers' before mentioned; and hastily snatching it from him, with great indignation, he threw it into the fire. Talleyrand was a very good actor, and this was a theatrical start, though not very dignified or becoming the character which he was then performing of Minister for Foreign Affairs. Through the interference of the First Consul's mother, Mr. M. at last obtained his passport, but only to proceed through the north of Germany.

The history of the second mission is very brief:

'A few days after the death of my revered and very kind friend, Sir Charles Stuart, his son, Mr. Charles Stuart, came to me,

me, and told me that his cousin, Lord Buckinghamshire, then Lord Hobart, wished to see me. I was presented to him. After some conversation as to my last journey and mission to Paris, he proposed to me to take another on the same subject. I stated to his Lordship the manner I had been before treated; he assured me, the then actual ministers were sincere in their wish of a solid peace. On this I agreed to undertake it, giving his Lordship another short report, strongly asserting, that I was fully persuaded Buonaparte most sincerely desired peace, though it was impossible we could flatter ourselves (the battle of Marengo, and the other very important events which had happened since my first mission) with obtaining the same advantageous terms.

I left England the 30th April, 1801. On my arrival in Paris, Buonaparte sent Saliceti to me, desiring, "I would not go to Malmaison to meet him, and to deliver any papers I wished him to see, to Saliceti, and he would find an opportunity of seeing me somewhere else." Some days after I was at his mother's. He came to me after midnight, and taking me aside told me, "he would have been glad to see me at any time, but that, in the manner I was come a second time, after what had happened before; that if the British government wished sincerely peace, they should send you, or any other person with a regular commission, or apply to Mr. Otto, the French agent, for prisoners of war in England."

On the 6th July, 1801, I returned, and made my report to Lord Buckinghamshire, who, in consequence, instructed me to begin the negotiation with Mr. Otto. I did, and peace was at last concluded, but, not in terms so advantageous and solid, as I still flatter myself it would have been, if, in consequence of what Buonaparte told me, I had been sent to Amiens, with the late Marquis Cornwallis.

The following is rather a curious anecdote in the Preface:

'When Mr. Massaria, on his return from the second mission (in July, 1801,) presented himself to the Editor, he put but one question on the subject of his negotiations — "Is it to be peace, or interminable war?" His reply was, "I will inform you, *decisively*, by 12 o'clock on the 1st of October next." He was then fully possessed of the mind of the Chief Consul, he was only in doubt of the sentiments of our cabinet. Early on that day, 1st of October, he came, and informed me accordingly, that preliminaries of peace were signed. I found that this decision had depended, from July to October, on the rising of the Nile. A fact confirmed to me by a noble friend, on his return to England, who added, that ministers need not have waited that event for the evacuation of Egypt by the French, because they had (from him) six weeks earlier intelligence.'

In Mr. Massaria's 'History of the Two Missions,' he alludes to a pamphlet which he wrote in the year 1788 in French, called a "Discourse addressed to a certain People;" modestly adding that, 'perhaps, it was the most decisive of any

any thing published in France.' The object of it, he says, 'was to prove that the claim of any people to abolish arbitrary power is just, useful to all classes of men, and easily to be obtained:' but Mr. Moore has stated the object of it somewhat more distinctly, when he says that 'internal evidence proves it to have been composed for the especial purpose of exciting and promoting revolution in France;' and he ought to have added, at the expence of any amount of proscription, murder, and massacre, and particularly aiming at the life of the unfortunate Louis the Sixteenth, who is designated as an object for pre-eminent vengeance. In point of composition, it is contemptible, being a violent and vague declamation, inflated and inflammatory, "full of sound and fury, signifying nothing"—but slaughter. We do not expect Mr. Moore, who has republished it in English, to agree with us concerning its character; and the author himself, modestly blushing while he records his own praises, affirms that he was complimented on this effusion of his genius, this venom of his breath, by many of the revolutionary chiefs, La Fayette, Mirabeau, D'Eguillon, Samet, Volney, and others:—the names of Danton and Robespierre are not mentioned, but where were these philanthropists?—It is very natural, however, to inquire why it is republished now; and the answer no doubt will be, for the purpose of exposing the British cabinet of 1788. *It is here asserted*, that this pamphlet was not only patronized by the revolutionary chiefs of France, but that, before its publication, it was submitted to the approbation of the British cabinet in that year, then issued by its authority, and circulated in France by means of money which it furnished. The original, *it is here said*, was delivered to Sir Evan Nepean, Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department, for the inspection and opinion of administration; was detained some months; and was then returned to the author with permission to publish it, and with an accompaniment of fifty pounds to defray the expence of sending copies to France by smugglers.—In the year 1788, this country was at peace with France; and the Revolution, it should be borne in mind, had not yet broken out, although loud rumblings of the volcano had given notice of an approaching eruption. We cannot *accredit* a story so dishonourable to the British government on the bare authority of Mr. Massaria; nor believe that Sir Evan Nepean, or any member of any British administration, could be base enough to give money for the circulation, in a country with which we were in amity, of a pamphlet that expressly aimed at the head of the reigning monarch, (one of the most humane and merciful
of

of human beings,) on the sole testimony of the man who could write it.

We are little disposed to sully our pages with any portion of Mr. Massaria's pamphlet: but, after the character that we have given of its nature, it becomes necessary in self-justification to commit this violence against our feelings. Let us again observe that it was published in 1788, (a year before the French Revolution can be said to have broken out,) in cold blood, and before any acts of violence or even of exasperation had yet taken place; and that one of the last acts of the administration of the Archbishop of Theulouse, on the 5th of July of this very year, was to publish a resolution of the King in council, inviting all his subjects to give him their advice with regard to the critical state of public affairs. Mr. Massaria was not slow, it seems, in availing himself of this gratuitous concession of an unrestricted freedom of the press, to use that press for the purpose of dashing Louis from his throne and taking away his life. After having exhorted the people of France not to be intimidated by the armies which the 'Tyrant is accustomed to dispose of at his pleasure,' he proceeds thus:

'It will not any longer be with the musket and bayonet only, that, in a similar case, we shall be authorized to fight: stones, knives, poison even: all, in short, that can occasion death and terror; all is authorized; all is allowed; all is lawful.

'The more decided and mortal the blow is, the more meritorious it will be. The more sublime, and holy the head is at which it is levelled, the more worthy it will be of our thanks, our praises, and our rewards. Incomparably more holy, happy, and praiseworthy will it be, if it be so directed, as to reach him, whose insensible and mad pretensions are the sole cause of all this disorder.

'Penetrated and filled with this important subject, I feel myself quite charmed, transported beyond myself, and even inspired to tell you, my dear fellow-citizens, that I voluntarily agree, that all the blood which you spill, by all the means which I have marked out to you, may fall on my head. I make myself, with all my soul, responsible to the Supreme Being, for all the deaths and massacres which this just and salutary work may make you commit.

'Let not the breaking the head of the tyrant, and of all his accomplices, occasion you any more regret, than the destruction of so many snakes and vipers. Every man who may dare to dispose at his pleasure of our rights, our liberties, and our lives, in whatever manner he may be sacrificed, has infinitely less right to complain of his punishment than the thief and the assassin.

'Do not, however, let the idea of the deaths and massacres which I have painted to you shock you, or for one moment stop you in this salutary enterprise. Justifiable as I think them before

men, and even before the Divinity himself, I do not, however, think, that we can easily arrive at these terrifying extremities. —

‘Let not false pity, and what will be still more unseasonable, an idolatrous and stupid respect for the Lord’s anointed, prevent your *sacrificing him* to the public welfare. He is, without doubt, the best offering you can make. If we believe that the punishment of a criminal will not displease the Supreme Being, whose *head* can we sacrifice, that will be less disagreeable to him? It will not only be a just punishment for the crimes and trespasses of all kinds which he continually occasions by his tyrannical system, but it will likewise be the most striking and salutary method of restraining others. It is, then, a sacrifice, which, not being displeasing to the Almighty, we owe to ourselves, as well as to all the other people of the universe.

‘This very just punishment of the tyrant being once inflicted, it will only remain for us to determine on the choice of one who can fill his place. Notwithstanding all that may be said, the task is much more easy to execute than you may imagine. Of all the trades which employ the individuals of a society, we see very often, and without being much astonished at it, that of royalty exercised by hands the most unfit for it. All its most sacred and important functions are executed by other hands, directed by other heads; and history, with very few exceptions, shows us that the sovereigns who are mentioned in it, and who have been called the most able, have not been less wicked than others.

‘It is, then, on good laws, according to the principles already laid down, and without their being in the power of any person, except that of the nation assembled in a body, to change them, and not at the will of their principal performer, that our happiness ought to depend. May I simply add, that those, who, in their different departments, act in his name, that is by his express orders, shall answer with their heads as well as himself, for all the actions which are contrary to those laws. By pursuing these wise maxims, the meanest labourer will easily become the wisest of kings, and he will reign as well as he at first understood how to dig the ground.’

After these disgusting specimens of a spirit worthy of

_____ “the high capital
Of Satan and his peers,”

is it possible to believe that any British administration, by connivance in the agency of its lowest and most degraded slave, would have given currency to this pamphlet? The charge is made; and for the honor of the nation let it be disproved.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR NOVEMBER, 1823.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 12. *The Forest Minstrel*, and other Poems. By William and Mary Howitt. 12mo. pp. 197. Baldwin and Co. 1823.

This little volume gives proof of true poetical talent, with a stronger and more genuine relish for the beauties of nature, a greater power of description, and more felicity of expression, than we often discover among the poetasters of the present age. William and Mary Howitt unite the accuracy of the naturalist with the enthusiasm of the poet, in many of their descriptions; and we may venture to say that some of their delineations are original as well as beautiful. They are free, likewise, from the current affectations of the day; and, though we may reasonably expect at some future period a bolder and more correct strain from the same hands that have given us the '*Forest Minstrel*,' we cannot wish to hear a song of truer harmony.

The following extracts display the peculiar style of the writers:

' At this sweet time, the glory of the spring,
Young verdurous June's delightful opening;
When leaves are loveliest, and young fruits and flowers
Fear not the frosts of May's uncertain hours;
Rich, ripe, luxuriant, yet with tenderest hues,
Waves the full foliage; and with morning dew,
And showers that gush down from the radiant skies,
To bring below the air of Paradise,
Awakening freshest fragrance as they pass;
There is a peerless greenness on the grass,
Yet somewhat darken'd with the loftier swell,
And purple tinge, of spike and pannicle;
While vivid is the gleam of distant corn,
And long and merry are the songs of morn;
'Tis wise to let the touch of nature thrill
Through the full heart; 'tis wise to take your fill
Of all she brings, and gently to give way
To what within your soul she seems to say:
" The world grows rich in beauty and in bliss;
Past springs were welcome, none so much as this."
At this sweet time, when wand'ring far and near,
The cawings loud of jealous rooks you hear,
That late have seen their annual war, and rued
Tremendous slaughter of their earliest brood;
And led with fearful haste, and anxious cries,
The remnant forth, and still, with careful eyes,
Watching for man, a black and glossy crew,
Rustling arise, and fly to haunts anew.

When many a migratory bird is come,
 With its loved voice, to its old summer-home;
 There is the martin chuckling in the eaves,
 The fly-catcher that confidently weaves
 Her yearly nest upon the pear-tree bough,
 Beside your door, and flitting to and fro,
 Is ever present when you pass without;
 At eve the bat is circling about;
 And in the afternoons, so calm and fair,
 The restless swallow sporting in the air;
 And higher still, the screaming swifts pursue
 Each other loudly in the ether blue;
 Again the wryneck chanteth forth pee, pee,
 From his old haunt, the hollow apple-tree;
 The redstart wails about the garden wall;
 And deep and liquid is the cuckoo's call
 From field and forest, bringing with its tone
 Feelings and scenes in blissful boyhood known.
 For those who nothing have, or wish, like me,
 To busy them, but 'neath the greenwood tree
 To listen in this glorious season quietly,
 To showers that patter on the oak-leaves young,
 And various ditties that meanwhile are sung
 By small birds sheltering on the inner boughs;
 Then stepping forth as the grand rainbow glows
 Upon the dark, blue cloud's far travelling shade;
 And rain-drops twinkle upon leaf and blade;
 And richly smiles the sun; and louder swell
 The songs of happy birds in wood and dell;
 And every bathed leaf and blossom fair
 Pours out its soul to the delicious air.'

Pleasing and poetical as some of these lines are, they are surpassed by the more bright and powerful delineations of rural scenery contained in a little piece intitled 'A June Day,' the opening of which we cannot refrain from copying:

' Oh! hast thou ever wish'd to know
 When most this varying world below
 Is like the changeless heaven above,
 In beauty, pleasure, peace, and love?
 Haste thee, in summer's youthful noon,
 The green, the joyous month of June,
 Far from the sultry streeted town,
 And lay thee in the evening down
 In some sweet hamlet's white-wall'd cot,
 Round which the pear and apricot
 Twine their green arms, and sparrows watch
 From their snug peep-holes in the thatch;
 And the light latticed porch embower
 The creeper and the passion-flower.
 ' The morning bursts — all heaven has shed
 Its light and music round thy bed:

The

The birds are busy in the eaves ;
 The sun-light dances on the leaves
 That tremble round the window's rim ;
 And to and fro the shadows skim
 Of busy wings without, that ply
 In quest of larva, worm, or fly.
 Throw now the sunny casement wide,
 In flows the warm and odorous tide
 From dew-besprinkled shrub and flower,
 That blossom round that sylvan bower.

‘ But oh ! thou world of light and glee !

What soul can ever picture thee ?
 As strays the fond enthusiast eye
 Round the green earth and flaming sky,
 From every meadow, bush, and tree,
 Rings morning's loudest melody.
 Hark to the cuckoo's wand'ring notes !
 Hark to the lark, whose music floats
 Through the wide air in strains that tell,
 This is a world where gods might dwell !

‘ The dew yet lingers on the grass,
 As down the long green lane you pass,
 Where, o'er the hawthorn's snowy wreaths,
 The woodbine's honied perfume breathes ;
 And the wild rose's arching spray
 Flaunts to the breeze above your way.
 What palace proud — what city hall,
 Can match these verdant boughs that fall,
 Vaulting o'er banks of flowers, that glow
 In hues of crimson, gold, and snow ?
 Where, midst the wild-brier's emerald leaves,
 Her gauze-like nest the white-throat weaves.

What sense of joy hath ever stole
 From song, or harp, into thy soul,
 Like this, from young birds all unseen,
 Chirping amongst the foliage green ?
 Or, new to life, on wings untried,
 Fluttering from bushes by your side ;
 Or gazing at you unconcern'd,
 Their foes, their perils yet unlearn'd ;
 With yellow bills, and plumage fair,
 And down that trembles to the air.
 The gale has woke, and, like a soul,
 Sent life and beauty through the whole.
 One living, restless radiance gleams,
 From quivering trees, and flowers, and streams.
 Mark ! how its bright and silvery sheen
 Gilds the tall grass, and corn-fields green :
 Wave after wave, the gleaming tide
 Of light sweeps o'er their surface wide ;
 And the quick, dancing splendour plays,
 As o'er the sea the summer's blaze.

We are pleased to add: that the authors of such lines as these are to be added to the list of those *Friends*, who have lately ventured to diffuse the graces and amenity of poetry over the severer spiritual graces of the mind, and the more silent musings of the Meeting. When they inquire, in their preface, 'Is there any department of literature, which may be cultivated and employed by *any good Christian*, which cannot be tolerated in a Friend?' we boldly venture to say there is not; and we cordially advise them to acknowledge and to act on this article of faith.

Art. 13. *The Proud Shepherd's Tragedy*; a scenic Poem, in 18 Scenes. Edited by Joseph Downes; to which are added, Fragments of a Correspondence, and Poems. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Hurst and Co. 1823.

The editor of these poems deprecates with great earnestness the severe decrees of criticism; by urging the circumstances under which they were written: for they are the productions, it seems, of an unhappy man, labouring under an affliction which intitles him to the sympathy of every compassionate bosom. It may be best, however, to permit Mr. Downes to state his own reasons for ushering this volume into the world.

'They are as follows: First, he (the editor) considers, that as written prior to the appearance of some great poetic leaders, whose "supreme dominion" almost compels involuntary imitation in followers — as the outpourings of a man who knew nothing of schools of poetry — read few modern books — but formed his own style by his own emotions, *really* writing for himself — these effusions of a recluse may possess a sort of curious interest, even distinct from what merit they may intrinsically bear. Secondly, he may be permitted to avow the weak wishes of a friend, toward an unhappy friend, in a sort of suspended existence from mental malady. He would fain test his pretensions to the character of a poet of the passions, during that suspension, in the fond hope of surprising his convalescence — should it ever occur — with the cheering voice of public acknowledgment, of that once-cherished ambition he had almost ceased to confess to himself. Lastly, and what is most to the purpose, the editor has some ground for believing that such freshness, raciness, or strong stamp, as intense real feeling, with too real occasion, may impart to poetry, will be found herein, inasmuch as the author, no less than his shepherd-hero, suffered.

'A catastrophe, which, several years ago, drew public curiosity rather intensely round the mysterious fate of a very young and very amiable female, (which curiosity, as unsatisfied, quickly dismissed the poor victim to total oblivion, up to this hour,) the editor has suspected to have been connected with the man, (or poet, if the world will allow him that title,) whose writings are in his hands; and who desired, if ever known to the public, to be ever known only by the name of *Perditus*. Whether *Perdita* was this unfortunate lady, or the mere "coinage of the brain," he has, however, no real grounds for forming any positive opinion. This only is sure, that he (the author) watched, for a very long time, the

the results of that melancholy incident, which involved a possibility of fearful injustice, (indeed years after its being forgotten by the world,) — and, perhaps, such watch and interest might be merely the attraction of any dismal mystery for his morbid state of mental excitement. Of this the editor may be allowed to say, that he is morally certain — if it were as he suspected — and had there arisen results — or could any good possibly have occurred from publicity, beyond gratifying lewd and idle curiosity — in any such case, that publicity would have been given, in spite of any, even the most solemn pledges to privacy. Indeed these only (not any fear or danger) existed to withhold it; were these suspicions not, indeed, conceits only of his friend the editor.

All this is very sad, and very obscure: but we think that it does not amount to a good and sufficient reason for swelling the catalogue of published books; and, above all, for adding to the immense multitude of poetical monsters, whose countless swarms buzz, crawl, and creep in every direction around us. We were somewhat suspicious of the rectitude of Mr. Downes's taste, from the style of his advertisement; and we became more than suspicious of it when we found him to be the instrument of dragging into day a long poem called *Perditus to Perdita*, beginning with such lines as these.

One blessing of the mind unblest,
The shady, haunted poet's mind —
The wild, the dreary, the possest —
To this world lost, the future blind!
Muse! Inspiration — of the heart
Mysterious voice! Whate'er thou art,
Toy of the crowd, admired by them,
Or spurn'd, as by a child a gem —
Blindly whichever — but to him
Whose life's a sleep, or bright or dim,
Thou friendly meteor of this valley —
Wild yet soft-beam'd — though wandering, blest —
Leading him stilly, gradually
Dawn — down to his everlasting rest,
By the world's unfrequented green
Ways, home again to earth — serene
Star of a soul, where all has been
Deep darkness, that soul thanks thee for
One beam! a star or meteor,
Still blessed be the hour it shined
Forth on the blackness roll'd behind.

We have, in the strict discharge of our duty, read through 'The Shepherd's Tragedy,' which is "such stuff as dreams are made of;" but we may often discover in it a wild energetic strain of thought; though involved in a cloudy chaotic mountain of words, as in the following lines:

'Woe to the sceptic, woe! for other
Mourners there is both help and hope:

Y 4

Below

Below the warm hand of a brother,
 Eyes to weep with them, hearts to open
 To them — a voice from the heavens above,
 (How far off, or how faint, soe'er,
 As of a father in his love
 Calling; to those who dream they hear,
 Enough that dream alone to cheer;
 Such dreamer, like a shipwreck'd man,
 Whom those around help all they can,
 While one unseen upon the beach
 Through the thick fog continually
 Is heard, crying — "Persist and reach!
 The lost are here!" well, well may rally
 Body and soul to fight the wave!
 Yes — other mourners in this valley
 Of tears, have all to make them brave
 In the dread advent of the grave.
 ' But for the infidel — woe, woe
 Past — future — now — above — below!
 The lover lone — child fatherless —
 Sick helpless — heir a beggar — left,
 Some bless, all pity; but none bless
 Him everlastingly bereft,
 Him who has lost a kingdom, even
 His Father's — his high heirdom's hope,
 Orphan'd of God, beggar'd of heaven,
 In ever-parted love to grope
 Out death alone; than death-sick worse,
 Heart-sick, and lost — lost the heart's nurse —
 Lost hope of ever finding more!
 Him fainting, prostrate, all pass o'er,
 Imputing as his crime his curse!
 Him, blind 'neath *all* those sorrows groping,
 Fools doubt, and hypocrites revile,
 Crying, — "Go, wicked," for not hoping!"

To justify our opinion that these poems are to be considered and pitied as the *ægri somnia*, we extract a sonnet, the meaning of which we must request the editor to interpret.

' Ah! welcomer as by the world rejected!
 Ah! dearer hero as by some hearts neglected!
 And *thou*, my playfellow? dost thou pass dim,
 In that pale cavalcade, dumb, sweeping, grim
 O'er my mid's twilight hour — pass, and no more?
 Not one laugh more — not one sad notice — not
 One glance to say, it is not all forgot
 That was between us? Spite of fate, before,
 Through change and chance, we forc'd a meeting yet;
 Still found ourselves together, talking o'er
 Youth's ardent aims, still pleas'd and smiling met! —
 Now, never more! — Could life like death forget!
 Them, *them* Thought wakes — *thou* cry'st to Thought; each haunt,
 Waking a life-long miserable want!

Art.

- Art. 14. *Mary Stuart.* By Miss Macauley. 8vo. pp. 138.
7s. stitched. Sherwood and Co. 1823.

Avowedly written for the purpose of a 'histrionic delineation' of the character of the heroine, this production is announced, with some truth, as a novelty in our dramatic literature. As we are without any existing models in this untried path, excepting Mrs. Siddons's admirable readings, we cannot judge what effect might be produced by a genuine master of the passions, in recitations unsupported by scenic splendor, dialogue, and action. Neither can we calculate on the degree of interest which was elicited in the present instance; although we trust that the lady's audience may have reaped more pleasure from such an exhibition of this mixed species of dramatic and historical composition, than her readers are likely to find in perusing the poem. We can easily appreciate the charm of a similar delineation of the passions, brought out in one short and definite effort, recommended by the voice and accomplished manners of a Mrs. Barclay, and seconded by the glowing effusions of Collins or of Moore: but the attempt, we think, to throw the whole history of an individual into dramatic recitation is equally injudicious and unavailing, however respectable the performance of the task may be. Such a plan combines many of the disadvantages belonging to each style of composition, while it comprehends very few of their excellences; and it forms altogether a medley of descriptive, narrative, and dramatic writing, by no means so attractive as any of them may be found in their distinct character. Accordingly, though Miss M. has very tolerably executed her task, seldom falling below and as seldom rising above mediocrity, we dare not venture to encourage her in the new career which she appears to have chalked out for herself: but we sincerely hope that the degree of judgment, which would appear to have dictated the following words in her preface, will be allowed to influence the writer's taste in her future efforts: — 'To realize such a plan requires a peculiar combination of ability, aided by a peculiar combination of circumstances.' She adds that 'the design is hazardous:' but we cannot go along with her when she continues, 'it is worth the hazard.' Still it is only justice to remark that the poem contains several very pleasing and poetic passages, with a few beautiful incidents and situations, by no means feebly treated.

MISCELLANEOUS.

- Art. 15. *An Appeal to the People of Great Britain on the Subject of confederated Greece.* By Thomas Lord Erskine. 8vo. Pamphlet. Whittakers. 1823.

The little tract, of which we have just given the title-page, was scarcely in our hands when the melancholy intelligence reached us that its noble author was no more! We must claim the liberty, for a moment or two, of suspending the ordinary course of our critical labours, in order to express (feebly, indeed, and inadequately) our regret for the loss of this venerable patriot and indefatigable champion of the rights and freedom of mankind.

In

In one sense, the death of a man full of years, and who had already done so much in his generation towards improving the moral and social happiness of his country, cannot be said to be immature: "*suis multo immaturam mortem haud sibi et patriæ.*" but, when we recollect that Lord Erskine was so lately enjoying a green and vigorous old age, which had scarcely dimmed the brightness of his eloquence, and most assuredly had not enfeebled the activity and enthusiasm of his mind, we are made to feel that the blow, which sooner or later comes to all, has in this instance been untimely. Yet it consoles us to observe, in the closing period of his life, that dignified consistency with his opening career which constitutes the character of the truly great: for in this his almost posthumous address to the public, we see him engaged in the same manly conflict against tyranny and oppression, which called forth the first efforts of his indignant eloquence, and appealing to the same generous and exalted principles which his whole public life has defended and illustrated.

As a distinguished member of the British Bar, he will be long remembered; for he may be said to have conferred on the forensic style of English oratory an honor which did not before belong to it. Acuteness, sound and solid reasoning, precision, and even rhetorical elegance, were not indeed wanting to it; and Yorke, Pratt, and Murray, had each shewn how the severity of legal argument might be relieved not only by the graces of classical diction, but sometimes by the play of a lively fancy. It was not, however, till Mr. Erskine appeared, that the eloquence of the Bar appeared capable of much higher efforts. In a few sentences, he was enabled to produce an effect on the minds of the jury, which the insinuation and address of the most finished advocate would scarcely have wrought by the most elaborate and studied discourse — the manner, the gesture, and the tone of the speaker were resistless, and stormed at will the bosoms of his auditors. Those who have heard him on great occasions will never forget that keenness of rebuke, or that appalling strength of denunciation, which pursued vice and corruption, and dragged them from their hiding-places; which unveiled hypocrisy and cunning; and which exposed perjury and prevarication to scorn and contempt. His defence of Captain Bailey, and his speech for Lord George Gordon, are among the recorded specimens of his excellence in this branch of his art: but those, whose professional duties have given them opportunities of witnessing the daily exercise of his powers, will call to mind still higher instances than these.

The independence of the Bar is not the least of our civil securities, and it owed almost its existence to the virtue and courage of Mr. Erskine. It was his fate to be thrown into frequent contests with the Court, and on those occasions especially when questions of the highest constitutional import were agitated. Then it was that, without the slightest departure on the one hand from the courtesy of a gentleman, or the respectful demeanor which is due to those who preside at our tribunals, but on the other hand wholly unawed by threats and frowns, he proceeded

ceeded in the fearless discharge of a duty which, though of the most sacred kind, has not unfrequently been betrayed by the hesitation or the timidity of Counsel. His reply to a well-known threat of Mr. Justice Buller, on the trial of the Dean of St. Asaph for the libel written by Sir William Jones, is too well known to be quoted. How gratifying it is to add that this intrepidity never drew down on him the ill-will of those under whom he practised! It is a matter of notoriety, for instance, that the late Lord Kenyon, who was far from being indisposed even to a severe exercise of his authority, was accustomed to speak of Erskine with the tenderness and affection of a parent; and even in those bickerings which occasionally broke out between them, tears were sometimes observed stealing down the cheeks of that venerable though irritable Judge.

An imperishable monument to the fame of Lord Erskine exists in the declaratory act commonly called Mr. Fox's Bill, concerning the law of libels: while in the great cases of the King v. the Dean of St. Asaph, and the King v. Stockdale, he rescued the province of juries from the usurpation of the court, and pioneered (as it were) the way for the act introduced by the great constitutional senator whom we have just named. His beautiful speeches in actions for adultery rendered the court of King's Bench, for the time, a moral school; and the dearest of all human connections seemed to gain additional sanction, and to derive new security, from the animated invectives with which he lashed the destroyers of domestic virtue. As the head of the profession, he was alike watchful of its privileges and observant of its decorums; and it was in a great degree from the influence of his example, that the calling of a lawyer was liberalized, and its exercise deemed inseparable from the character of a gentleman. When he was appointed to the seals, therefore, his departure from the Bar was the greatest loss which it had ever sustained. In such a profession, a finished gentleman is not at all times easily supplied.

We have been detained by this short tribute, which we could not in justice to our own feelings deny to one of the most persevering and consistent friends of the freedom of the press, as well as of the other privileges inherent in the British constitution, from more immediately noticing the little piece before us; which is valuable as being the last words of a patriot in behalf of a cause that lay the nearest to his heart. His 'Appeal' exhorts the people of Great Britain to contribute their aid to the cause of the Greeks; and it scarcely falls short, in energy and earnestness, of many of the earliest among his efforts to redeem his fellow-creatures from oppression. We cite the concluding part of it, sincerely hoping that its manly and elevated sentiments will find an echo in every bosom.

'The *Multitude*, (still speaking of them in my sense of the word,) with the assistance of the superiors whom they trust in, can alone act with any adequate effect in this great Christian cause. I can no otherwise reach them but by what I am now writing, and I address them from the bottom of my heart. — I know

know *from experience*, how universally and how speedily any danger to the religious world may be circulated and repelled; I only pass by a more distinct allusion to it, and the expression of my grateful remembrance of a confidence once reposed in me, lest I should be charged with a wish to create disunion when all are sincerely united in Christian charities, and are at peace. — I write with confidence to the whole people of this land, but more especially to the clergy of the established church, and to the numerous members of those religious congregations, who, though differing from them in some doctrinal expositions of Scripture, as the laws recognise and sanction such differences, are yet sincerely united in performing the duties of Christian teachers, and in maintaining, by their instructions and in their lives, the innumerable benefits which follow from the Christian faith.

‘ For my own part, I pretend to no superior sanctity: on the contrary, though born of parents and of a family in all times eminently religious, I am fully conscious of many errors and imperfections; but I can affirm with truth, that no man was ever more deeply impressed with the truths and the value of Divine Revelation, as throughout this nation the Scriptures are in all essentials interpreted, and as far as relates to the feelings of humanity which I now seek to awaken in others. I cannot charge myself with indifference to the wrongs of any human being, or even to the sufferings of the most helpless creature that crawls upon the earth to whom God has given life.

‘ Nothing now remains but the consideration of the best means of giving effect to what *all* must wish to do.

‘ In every city, town, and village in Great Britain, there are, besides the presence and active offices of many pious and learned persons of the national church, numerous societies for Christian worship, superintended by many sincere, zealous, and enlightened men. Under the influence of all such classes, the Bible has been published in almost every living tongue; and the same small mites that have raised this immortal monument, the raising of which will be remembered and rewarded when all human works of art and science have returned to the dust, might, under the same patronage and in the same manner collected, without even being felt, complete the deliverance of the confederated Greeks: and if this be so, what is it that would be accomplished? I take upon me confidently to assert, as in my published Letter to the Earl of Liverpool I have before asserted, that as an immediate consequence of this happy event, on all other accounts so desirable, the progress of the Gospel, and the civilization of mankind, would, by its reception in the vast surrounding regions now and for centuries past under the shadow of a portentous eclipse, be more rapid, more extensive, and would lead to results more universal, than all that the unexampled exertions in the Christian cause have hitherto produced in Great Britain: and this great work the same excellent persons, were it now begun, in the approaching winter, might triumphantly finish, before the baffled Ottomans, fast approaching the crisis of their destiny, could strike another blow against the Greeks.

‘ I feel

‘ I feel the greater confidence in the course which I have humbly recommended, from the spontaneous exertions of the Society of Friends, whose succours have been so early, so critically seasonable, and so important as to entitle them to the highest admiration and respect.

‘ For all the facts connected with this important subject, which ought to be universally known;— for the exertions which the Greeks have already made, and, with the assistance prayed for, are capable of making;— for the most unanswerable refutations of all the calumnies against them;— for the details of their present condition, their just expectations if duly protected, and their imminent perils if neglected;— I refer to Mr. Blaquiere’s most valuable Reports, as printed in the Appendix; which being derived from certain information collected by him recently on the spot, every word I could add to them would be useless, as indeed without them I should not have ventured to address you.

‘ Not presuming to trust to my own opinions, I have delivered this to the Greek Committee, leaving it to their discretion to suppress or to publish it.’

With this address is circulated an ‘ Appeal from the Greek Committee to the British Public, in general, and especially to the Friends of Religion;’ calculated to excite the same feelings in behalf of the suffering and oppressed people for whom this Committee is so laudably acting.

Art. 16. *The Graces*: a Classical Allegory, interspersed with Poetry, and illustrated by Explanatory Notes: together with a Poetical Fragment entitled *Psyche among the Graces*. Translated from the original German of Christopher Martin Wieland, 12mo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

In the Appendix to vol. xix. of our New Series, p. 490., we noticed the *Grazien* of Wieland, of which this is a translation. The narrative is a mythological allegory, intended to describe the successive steps of human civilization, and referring them to that progressive evolution of the idea of the beautiful, which results from the comparison of coarser with more refined forms of sensual gratification. It is an epicurean theory of the improvement of man. The essay consists of six books, and was originally intended to have been wholly written in rhyme: but the author, having become dissatisfied with many parts of his toil, retained in verse only the fragments which pleased him, and connected them with intervals of prose; cutting down a didactic poem into a philosophic novel. This is not, however, one of the best of Wieland’s works, although it includes many passages of elegant imagery, and displays erudition in Greek mythology. We should have thought that the translator would have been better employed on the *Letters of Aristippus*: but probably he wished to display his talent for versification, as well as his familiarity with German prose. A short extract will characterize his skill in both departments.

‘ “ Love, when very young, having lost himself during a ramble through the groves of Arcadia, fell asleep among some myrtle bushes.

“ On earth's flower-sprang'd lap, mid violets sweet
And blooming hyacinths his limbs recline, —
Their heads the joyous plants uplift, to meet
His lovely frame, and court his touch divine !”

“ Should these verses chance to please you, Danaë, you must thank Homer for them. That poet first placed the father of the gods on a similar couch, when Juno (aided by sleep) found means to make him for a while forget that she was his consort.

“ When Cupid awoke, he found himself surrounded by three young maidens, the most lovely his eyes had ever beheld. Their resemblance to each other was so striking, that at the first *coup d'œil* they appeared like three copies of the same original.

“ This lovely trio were going at eventide to gather flowers with which they were accustomed to strew the bed of their supposed mother Lycanion. ‘ Here are plenty,’ cried the youngest nymph, running towards the spot where Cupid slept. Conceive how agreeably she was surprized on discovering him nestling among the flowerets.

“ Quick, (with whisper soft she cries,)
Lest the sleeper ope his eyes,
Sisters, hither, tripping light,
Come, and view this beauteous sprite;
Maiden none, yet still as fair
As our fairest maidens are.
Mark its locks of golden hue,
Shoulders mottled, white and blue :
Like a bird, it droops its head,
Couch'd upon a flowery bed.
Sisters, did you ever see
Such matchless form and symmetry ?”

“ The other sisters ran to the spot, and the trio stood around contemplating the infant god with tender admiration.

“ Its face how fair ! its mouth how red !
Golden tresses gild its head ;
Snow-white are its rounded arms,
As it smiles a thousand charms.
Playing round each dimpled cheek,
Inward mirth and joy bespeak !
Aglaja, let us catch it, pray,
Ere it waking fly away.”
“ Catch it ! Oh you're wond'rous wise !
And what, when caught, would be your prize ?” &c. &c.

Times was when a severe taste had overspread the literature of this country, and when several of the delineations in this poem or novel would have been deemed too free for feminine and family reading : but so many libertine verses have lately been forced into circulation by the gay Muse, and our families have imbibed so much more of a classical and *tolerant* mode of judging from continental excursions and society, that the genteel world is become less nice and particular, and may perhaps bear this whole

whole volume without considering it as a necessary piece of prudery to be a little scandalized. With this warning, we leave it to our readers to determine for themselves, whether or not they will seek any farther acquaintance with 'The Graces.'

Besides the notes of Wieland, which abound with beautiful quotations, the translator has added several of his own, to illustrate the scenery and the allusions; and also an appendix, intitled 'Psyche among the Graces,' which includes a letter from Wieland to Weisse.

The engraved frontispiece is adapted to the very fragment of which we have transcribed only a fragment.

Art. 17. *The World in Miniature*; edited by Frederic Shoberl. — *Austria*; containing a Description of the Manners, Customs, Character, and Costumes of the People of that Empire. Illustrated by Thirty-two coloured Engravings. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Ackermann. 1823.

These elegant little volumes contain numerous engravings of male and female figures, in the usual costume of the lower classes who dwell in the several provinces of the Austrian empire; which are all coloured *to the life*, and give an instantaneous and vivid idea of the various inhabitants of that country. A well written text explains the copper-plates, and delineates geographically the several provinces, which are thus described both by the pencil and the pen. The information is comprehensive, though concise; the *needless* being every where avoided, and the *characteristic* brought into view. Many names of places and tribes, which are often misspelled by our native geographers, are here reformed according to the usage of Germany.

On the religious sects, the author thus speaks:

'It would be difficult to state with accuracy the number of Catholics in Austria; but so much is certain, that they compose at least two-thirds of the population of the empire. The Protestants are not numerous, excepting in Bohemia on the frontier of Saxony.

'With the exception of Russia and Turkey, no country in Europe contains so many professors of the Greek faith as the dominions of Austria. Some of these are termed United, as they acknowledge the Pope for their supreme head, while others have refused to become thus united with the Catholics. They are chiefly to be met with in Galicia, Hungary, Croatia, and Transylvania.

'The Armenian Christians have chosen Galicia in preference for their new abode; but there are some also in Hungary and Transylvania. Almost all of them are engaged in commerce. These people are remarkable for their activity and industry; and such of them as do not make a profession of the arts or trade, pursue agriculture with truly laudable perseverance. Almost all those who have settled in Hungary have adopted the latter; and the pains they have bestowed on a soil naturally excellent have been rewarded with such abundant crops, that almost all of them have acquired in a short time a competence and even wealth.

'Since

‘ Since the time of Joseph II. the Protestants, both Lutherans and Calvinists, have enjoyed the free exercise of their religion in the imperial dominions. The number of the former is estimated at about one million and a half, and that of the latter at two millions and a half. Bohemia, Hungary, and Moravia are the countries in which they are most numerous. Almost all of them are remarkable for their industry.

‘ There are many other religious sects in Austria. The province of Transylvania alone is computed to contain upwards of forty-five thousand Socinians or Unitarians, who enjoy the same rights and privileges as the Catholics and Protestants. Most of these Socinians are Hungarians or Szeklers, and their number throughout Hungary is so considerable that they have founded one hundred and sixty churches. Hungary has also afforded an asylum to the Mennonites and Anabaptists: but, though they are tolerably numerous there as well as in Transylvania, still they form but a small part of the population of those two countries.

‘ The Jews in the Austrian states are not, as we have seen, so numerous as it might be imagined. They amount to about three hundred thousand. In order to make real citizens of them, the sovereigns conferred on them the same prerogatives with the rest of their subjects. This wise measure, however, has not excited in them any genuine love for their country, or inspired them with the least zeal for the welfare of the state. The Jews, as in the other countries of Europe, live insulated amidst the nation to which they belong; and continue to form a separate people, who never will mingle with any other race. Self is their ruling principle, and private interest their sole study. Without love to their sovereign, without concern for their country, they are indifferent to every thing excepting money, which is the god of their idolatry. Leading, wherever they are found, a wandering life, they consider themselves rather as travellers than as citizens whose fortunes are dependent on the prosperity of their native land.

‘ The Austrian sovereigns, after conferring upon them the rights of citizens, deemed it but fair that the Jews should, like all the other classes of society, furnish soldiers for the public defence. This just requisition they resisted, and it was necessary to employ force to compel submission to this general measure. It was not without great difficulty that fifteen hundred were levied in Galicia: some of them served in the ranks, and others in the artillery and waggon-train.

We are glad to see a work so elegant, so well adapted for the instruction of young persons, and by its form so fit to be made a present to them, proceeding with a regularity which indicates a merited patronage. It is a miniature likeness of geography, executed by a skilful hand.

The next divisions of this ‘World in Miniature,’ including *China and Japan*, are advertized.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW, For DECEMBER, 1823.

ART. I. *Memoirs of the History of France during the Reign of Napoleon*, dictated by the Emperor at St. Helena to the Generals who shared his Captivity; and published from the original Manuscripts, corrected by Himself. Vols. I. and II. Dictated to General Gourgaud, his Aide-de-Camp. 8vo. 1*l.* 8*s.* Boards. Colburn and Co. 1823.

———, &c. &c. *Historical Miscellanies*. Dictated to the Count de Montholon. 8vo. Vols. I. and II. 1*l.* 8*s.* Boards. Colburn and Co.

SOME time having passed since we made our report of a portion of the work of M. las Cases respecting the extraordinary "Exile of St. Helena," and the volumes now before us, so much more immediately his own production, not having yet been noticed by us, our readers may perhaps attribute the delay to negligence: but we have been far from inattentive to their powerful claims on us, and have not only been carefully perusing their contents but have also been sedulously considering the works of contemporaneous writers which are connected with them. The Baron Gourgaud's portion of the Napoleon Commentaries consists almost entirely of a regular examination of those prominent features of Bonaparte's extraordinary career, which fill up the space from the year 1791 to nearly 1802: but the volumes published by the Count de Montholon extend somewhat farther, as they are unconnected, and, under the general head of *Historical Miscellanies*, embrace different periods. They give Napoleon's opinions of the publications by Rogniat, Dumas, and Chaboulon; of the surreptitious *Manuscript from St. Helena*; of the *Four Concordats*; of the *Historical Memoirs of the Revolution in St. Domingo*; of the *Memoirs of Charles XIV. King of Sweden*; and also of the extensive military work of Baron Jomini.

It is not in our power to enter into a minute examination of these voluminous Memoirs; and indeed it is only in the well-known leading traits of their dictator's singular career that they are of general interest. To these circumstances, therefore, in connection with the corresponding details of

Jomini, Dumas, Jourdan, the Archduke Charles, De Koch, &c., and the English writers on his wars, we shall principally direct our attention. We do not mean to advert to the political vituperations which are occasionally launched forth against the English ministry: they may or they may not be the opinions really held by the Ex-Emperor: but we are glad to find that they occur very rarely. Of the four volumes on our table, we shall take those which were dictated to General Gourgaud * as the main ground-work of our report: uniting the remarks on M. de Montholon's portion as far as events run parallel.

Napoleon is said to have dictated the whole of these notices; and a characteristic statement of the rapidity with which he did this, as well as of the amazing command of language and of perception which he certainly possessed, is given in an introduction of two or three pages. The situation of historical secretary to him must have been a post of great labor, and have required considerable talent as well as patience, for it appears that he very often cancelled whole pages, and recomposed them himself; and, as the specimens of his hand-writing are nearly illegible, it must have been a task of great trouble to prepare these manuscripts for publication.

M. de Gourgaud's two volumes relate to Memoirs of the Siege of Toulon; the 18th of Brumaire; the Provisional Consuls; Ulm; Moreau; Genoa; Massena; Marengo; the Negotiations and Campaigns of 1800 and 1801; Neutral Powers; Naval and Land Battle of Aboukir; Egypt; Battle of the Pyramids; Religion, Customs, Arts, and Sciences of the Egyptians: with a copious appendix of documents, consisting principally of Bonaparte's Correspondence with the Generals and the Directory. This division of the Memoirs, therefore, forms a sort of justificatory biographical narrative; and it is highly interesting to observe that it does not betray any considerable evidences of passionate discussion or of tiresome exculpatory zeal: the text consisting mostly of a kind of desultory conversation, in which the restless, ardent, and capacious mind of the Ex-Emperor is developed with great verisimilitude. It is quite evident throughout these productions, that in answering the numerous attacks on his conduct, (for he rarely answers those on his *character*,) he is extremely anxious that unfavorable notions of his capacity should not go down uncontradicted to posterity: his mode of replying

* An account of M. Gourgaud's former publication, the Narrative of the Battle of Waterloo, was given in our Review for December, 1818.

to them is not, therefore, so much deprecatory as it is decisive; he speaks as one who of right possessed the first sources of information; and he endeavors sometimes laboriously to afford explanations, by citing proofs which, generally speaking, are very strong and often irrefragable. — Of the sacrifice at Jaffa, the murder of Kleber, and of his own retreat from Egypt, Napoleon says but little in this division of the work; and his avowal of the order for the Duc d'Enghien's death, under the plea of state-necessity, is rather equivocal. (Vide page 332., second volume, *Miscellanies*.) Savary, Duke of Rovigo, has just published a work in which he absolves Bonaparte from this crime, and with apparent justice seems to prove that he knew nothing of the scene at Vincennes; the whole of which is attributed to M. Talleyrand. We shall take farther notice of this statement. — We understand, also, that much is said on this subject in the new *livraison* of the Napoleon Memoirs now publishing.

Of M. de Montholon's volumes we must now state more precisely the contents. They consist of Seven Notes on Jomini's History of the Campaigns in Italy in 1796 and 1797, including the Battles of Montenotte, Lodi, Castiglione, Bassano, Arcola, Rivoli, and the War in Germany in 1797; Notes on the eight Volumes of Dumas's Summary of Military Occurrences from 1799 to 1814, including Pitt's Polity, Moreau, Naval Armistice, and Egypt; Six Notes on the Work intitled the Four Concordats, including Remarks on the Pamphlets printed in London, the Abduction of the Pope, State Prisons, &c.; Four Notes on the Historical Memoirs of the Revolution of Saint Domingo; Notes on the Memoirs of Charles XIV. of Sweden; Seventeen Notes on Baron Rogniat's Considerations on the Art of War, involving his Ideas of a new Mode of forming Troops, the Battles of Eylau, Jena, Moscow, Essling, the Retreat from Russia, the Campaign of 1814, and the Battle of Mont St. Jean; Forty-four Notes on the Manuscript from St. Helena, refuting Statements in them concerning Napoleon's Life and Public Acts; and lastly, Notes on Baron Chaboulon's Memoirs of the Private Life, Return, and Reign of Napoleon in 1815. A very copious appendix follows, containing much interesting matter. It includes chiefly the Pope's Bulls and Letters on the Subject of his forcible Removal, with the Correspondence between Prince Metternich and the Duke of Vicenza in 1813 and 1814. Our readers will probably conceive that the most interesting part of M. de Montholon's book is that in which Bonaparte replies to the assertions of the celebrated Manuscript from St. Helena, and to the Memoirs of his

Private Life and Return to France in 1815 by his Secretary De Chaboulon. We shall therefore view both these with considerable attention.

It has been already stated that the Ex-Emperor was anxious to have the principal events of his public life discussed, and the fictitious 'Manuscript from St. Helena' gave him a good opportunity. His observations on its errors commence by remarking that it is the production of a counsellor of state who was in the ordinary service from 1800 to 1803, but who was not in France in 1806 or 1807;—that he is well acquainted with the political affairs of Spain, but was never present at a battle, and has the most erroneous ideas of war and military manoeuvres.

Napoleon's early life has never been very well detailed; nor in the present volumes has he taken much pains to elucidate the doubtful passages of it. In describing the siege of Toulon, however, and in refuting the counsellor of state, he assures us that he joined as a second lieutenant of artillery from La Fere, at Valence in Dauphiny, in October, 1785, four years before the commencement of the Revolution; and thus he had actually served for some time that family, whom he was so soon afterward one of the principal agents in overwhelming. He states also that he was promoted as a captain in the artillery-regiment No. 4., of Grenoble, in 1789; that he was *chef de bataillon* before the siege of Toulon, at the early age of twenty-four; and that he was then selected by the Committee of Public Safety to take charge of the siege-train: but, from being simply the leader of the artillery, by opposing D'Arcon's plan of the operations against Toulon, and persuading the engineers, Dugommier, and the representatives, to adopt his ideas, the place fell into the power of the French, and he became a general officer. *

From this period, the date of Bonaparte's rapid and brilliant course may be taken; and if we may credit his own narrative, as well as those of others who witnessed his career, the knowledge of his profession and the strength of his genius were so eminently displayed at his first entry on public life, that even the most ignorant could not but foresee that he was destined to act a conspicuous character in the affairs of the Revolution. His conduct at Toulon, and the remarks which he has made in these Memoirs on the savage barbarity of the

* The vaporing letter of Freron and Barras to the Directory, on the taking of Toulon, seems but little deserving of credit: for Napoleon states that they made their appearance about three hours after the taking of Little Gibraltar, with their swords drawn!

miscreants who were called Representatives, must not be unnoticed. He was not a party to those dreadful massacres of the unfortunate inhabitants who were shot a fortnight afterward by order of the Convention, nor to the wicked destruction of the houses of the obnoxious. He distinctly blames these horrid proceedings; and the letter from the infamous Fouché to Collot d'Herbois is given in the appendix, as if with a view to excite the abhorrence in which the principles contained in it should be held. * Our readers will do well to peruse the almost forgotten details of this epoch of the Revolution; for, even knowing, as every body does, the sanguinary characters with whom Bonaparte was then entering into contact, it seems difficult to believe that any set of human beings would have signed their names to some of the letters which appear in this appendix: particularly that which bears the signatures of Salicetti, Freron, Ricord, Robespierre, and Barras, and in which is the following sentence: "*The vengeance of the nation*

* We copy this letter, as a memorial to posterity of the character of Fouché:

" Toulon, 28 Frimaire, year 11 of the
Republic one and indivisible.

" And we also, my friend, we have contributed to the taking of Toulon, by the terror we struck into the cowards who entered the place, exposing to their sight the carcasses of thousands of their accomplices.

" The war is at an end, if we know how to avail ourselves of this memorable victory. Let us be terrible, that we may not be in danger of becoming weak or cruel; let us destroy, in our wrath, and at one blow, all rebels, conspirators, and traitors, to spare ourselves the anguish, the tedious misery of punishing them as kings. Let us execute justice as nature does; let us avenge ourselves as a people; let us strike like the thunderbolt, and annihilate even the ashes of our foes, that they may not pollute the soil of liberty.

" May the perfidious and ferocious English be attacked in all directions; may the whole Republic form but one volcano to overwhelm them with its devouring lava; may the infamous isle which produced these monsters, whom humanity disowns, be ingulphed for ever in the depths of ocean!

" Adieu, my friend, tears of joy gush from my eyes, and inundate my soul. The courier is departing. I shall write again by the ordinary post. (Signed) " FOUCHÉ.

" P. S. We have only one way of celebrating this victory: this evening we send two hundred and thirteen rebels to meet death amidst the thunder of our guns. Extraordinary couriers will be instantly despatched to convey the intelligence to the army."

is, at work; shooting goes on rapidly; all the officers of the marine are already exterminated."

It is pleasing to turn from the contemplation of such horrors to the grateful mention which Bonaparte makes of the representative Gasparin, who, he observes, first brought him into notice: while he disavows all connection with Barras until the 18th of Vendemiare, and states that he employed Fouché afterward because he was in hopes that experience had tamed his barbarity, and also because his talents peculiarly fitted him for the station which he occupied.

After the siege of Toulon, the young commandant of artillery* was appointed brigadier-general, and transferred to take charge of that service in the army of Italy under General Dumerbion. It appears that he was never unemployed; and that Saorgio, the Col de Tende, Oneglia, the Sources of the Tanaro and Savona, fell under the dominion of the French through his means in 1794. In 1795 he commanded the artillery of the expedition which was to sail from Toulon for Corsica, or Rome; and while still at Toulon he saved the lives of Mariette and Chambon the representatives, who were nearly killed in a mutiny among the gunners. In May, 1795, he was appointed a General of infantry; and through the affair of the 13th of Vendemiare he obtained the command of the army of Paris, which he held till March, 1796. He then became General-in-chief of the army of Italy. As he had been employed in the topographical department during 1795, had already given plans on which the preceding Generals in Italy were to act, and was possessed of great local knowledge from his former campaign under Dumerbion, he attained distinction with great rapidity; and the battles of Montenotte, Lodi, Castiglione, Bassano, Arcola, and Rivoli †, soon caused all Europe to regard him with astonishment. ‡

As the subsequent events of Napoleon's career are too well understood to render it necessary for us to search amid conflicting testimonies concerning them, we shall examine his details

* We do not find that he was ever major, or colonel. *Chef de bataillon* is an intermediate rank between first captain and major; and it might be well that some such rank existed in the British service, to reward those officers who have been captains above ten years.

† In the publication of Count las Cases, vol. ii. parts iii. and iv., these celebrated battles are treated more at large than they are in the present volumes.

‡ It is a curious coincidence that the first battle of Waterloo was fought in the year in which Bonaparte first became publicly known.

of the Italian and German campaigns in 1796 and 1797 with those which have been published by Jomini, Dumas, Prince Charles, Jourdan, &c. M. de Jomini's great work on these events is much praised by Napoleon : but he has made several remarks on such parts of it as he deemed inaccurate. The summary of General Dumas, with which our readers are acquainted, comes in for a larger share of notice, but is nevertheless a little censured. We shall mark the most conspicuous differences which exist between these authors and the great actor whose scenes they have attempted to pourtray.

In the details of the battle of Lodi, Bonaparte answers General Jomini's question whether the French army should not have crossed the Po at Cremona rather than at Placenza, by observing,

' That in moving from Tortona to Placenza down the right bank of the Po, it had left its flank exposed during a march of eighteen leagues, to the enemy ; who, well supplied with pontoons, was posted on the left bank. Many inconveniences would have resulted from prolonging this exposed march seven leagues more, and no end was to be attained by it. Placenza, on the right bank, afforded all the resources of a great town to facilitate the construction of bridges ; while Cremona, on the opposite side, would have remained in the power of the enemy until the passage had been effected. Besides, Placenza is the nearest point on the Po to Milan, whilst Cremona is much more distant, and is separated by the Adda. If Beaulieu had crossed on the right bank of the Adda, and thrown a bridge opposite Placenza, the French army would have been divided into two parts on the two banks. Flank marches are to be avoided : but, when they are inevitable, they should be made with as much rapidity and as short as possible.'

In the subsequent paragraphs, Napoleon continually regrets the want of a pontoon-equipage in this campaign, and attributes the necessity for the combat at Lodi wholly to such a defalcation in the resources placed at his disposal.* The eighth page of the *Miscellanies* deserves a careful perusal, for to the sentiments there expressed Bonaparte owed all his success. It was by opposing calmness, discrimination, and circumspection to the mad and infuriated conduct of the sanguinary men who ruled France, that he saved that country

* Pontoons in those days were cumbrous, expensive, and wretchedly contrived. They have been greatly improved since the peace, and those which are now called demi-canoes are light, comparatively cheap, safe, and form admirable rafts for transporting guns or men ; while from their figure, and from being water-tight throughout, they can resist almost any river-current when properly moored and managed.

from the anarchy in which it would again have been involved.

With respect to the battle of Castiglione, the result of which obliged Wurmser to retreat into the Tyrol, Napoleon speaks thus: 'Too much reliance is placed on the reports of the Aulic Council, which being defeated, tried to represent matters in the most favorable light. Wurmser was an old soldier, he had good officers with him, and he knew that his plan was too vast, but he thought himself protected by his numerical superiority. If he had only possessed forces equal to his opponents, or only a third more, he would not thus have extended his plan.'

On the battle of Bassano, as related by Jomini, it is remarked that this action 'was more important than is represented, and the losses sustained by the enemy were more serious.' Jomini is also stated to evince a want of knowledge of the battle of Verona and the events at Legnano.

As it appears that Bonaparte was very near being taken prisoner at Legnano, we shall give his own brief and characteristic statement :

'At the first gun fired by the van-guard of Cerea, Napoleon, who was on horseback, and was marching more to the right, in the direction of Sanguinetto, comprehended what had happened: he galloped to the spot in order to remedy the evil, if possible; but as he came up, the 4th light regiment was routed; and several thousand cavalry were scouring the plain. An old woman informed Wurmser that the French General had been at her door not ten minutes before; he had, she said, only just time to ride off again at full speed. The old Marshal hoped, not without some foundation, that his adversary would have fallen into his power. It is said that he recommended that Napoleon should be brought to him alive.'

The notes on the combat at Arcola are extremely interesting, but too long for us to copy: while the notes on the affair of Rivoli contain nothing very much worth notice; excepting the statement that General Clarke never aimed at supplanting Bonaparte in the command of the army of Italy, but was in reality employed on a secret mission to him from the minority of the Directory, and also at the court of Vienna.

Of the notes on the German war in 1797, it would be impossible to give an adequate idea without recalling most of the events of that struggle. They have also been already amply discussed in our criticisms on the works of Dumas, the Archduke Charles, and Jourdan. Napoleon blames the Archduke Charles for having chosen a bad position behind the Tagliamento, and for his retreat on the lower Isonzo; remarking

marking also that the whole of the thirty-eighth chapter of Jomini's book, relating to these events, is very faulty.

The year 1798 was chiefly remarkable for the amicable reception which the Russian court gave to Louis XVIII.; the abdication of the papal seat when the French took possession of Rome on the 26th of February; the capture of Alexandria and Malta by Bonaparte; the abolition of the Swiss independency; the invasion of Ireland and the conquest of Piedmont by the republicans; and the victories gained by Lord Nelson at the Nile and by Sir John Warren off the coast of Ireland. Of these events, the volumes before us contain several disjointed notices. Respecting the first quarrel with the Pope in this year, it is merely said, 'Napoleon had paid particular attention to religious affairs in Italy, in 1796 and 1797: this species of knowledge was necessary for the conqueror and legislator of the Transpadan and Cispadan republics,' &c. In 1798 and 1799 he had occasion to study the Koran, and to acquire a knowledge of the principles of Islamism, the government and the opinions of the four sects, and their relations with Constantinople and Mecca. Apparently, he must have become well acquainted with both religions; since his knowledge of these subjects contributed to gain him the affections both of the Italian clergy and the Ulemas of Egypt.

Of the Egyptian campaign* we have here very copious accounts; and we have perused them with attention, because it was naturally a matter of curiosity to find what the planner of this measure would urge as his reasons for leaving his comrades in the moment of their danger: but in order to trace his relations of this part of his history, we have to examine the four volumes throughout, as they are scattered and totally unconnected. The objects which republican France proposed in securing Egypt appear to have been threefold:—to establish a colony on the Nile, which without slaves would serve France instead of St. Domingo or the sugar-islands:—to open a market for its manufactures with Arabia, Africa, and Syria;—and, lastly, to break the British empire in India into Gallic provinces. It is here asserted that the first two objects were completely attained; and that the third would have been fulfilled in 1802, if a young enthusiast had not deprived the gallant Kleber of his existence. — It is certainly

* Alexander Berthier's account of this campaign, which is so well written, and possesses so much detail, is not noticed in these Memoirs.

very easy for a projector to insist that a favorite idea would have succeeded if circumstances had proved fortunate: but we believe that the sensible people of Europe will rather attribute the failure of this extravagant scheme to the valor of Nelson, Smith, and Abercrombie, than to the dagger of the fanatic. At this distant period, it is amusing to trace the absurdities in which Bonaparte, or those who wrote the account of his Egyptian war, indulged. Among other things, we are assured that the Mussulmans looked on the French as an army of converts disposed to embrace Mohammedism; and that, to encourage this good idea, the Coptic, Greek, Latin, and Syrian Christians were not countenanced in the various applications for protection which they made to those whom they regarded as following the doctrines of their founder. We should apprehend that some oversight has been committed in that paragraph of the 207th page of the *Miscellanies*, in which Napoleon is made to observe that he took advantage of the impiety of his army to impress the Turks with the notion that they preferred Islamism. '*Ever since the Revolution,*' it is said, '*the French army had exercised no worship: even in Italy it never attended church; and advantage was taken of this circumstance,*' &c.

It is amusing to read the discussion which passed between the Sheiks of the Grand Mosque and Bonaparte, on the proposal for causing the Egyptians to take the oath of obedience to him. They naturally objected, unless the French became Mohammedans; while Bonaparte demurred, as the only obstacles, to circumcision, and abstinence from wine. The matter was debated for three weeks; when the Ulemas being then agreed, the Muftis published an order, stating that circumcision, being only a perfection, was not indispensable to the true belief: but that, unless it was practised, the faithful could scarcely expect to enter Paradise. Thus, says Napoleon, we got over one half of the difficulty, and the other it was easy to persuade them was unconscionable. In six weeks more, they ordained that wine might be used, provided that a fifth of the converts' income, instead of a tenth, were employed in acts of charity. Thus the subtle General *managed* these grave elders; and by promising to build such a noble mosque, in commemoration of this act of fealty and of his army's conversion, that they could form no idea of its grandeur, he closed their eyes to the observance of his proceedings: leaving, however, according to his own account, when the army was withdrawn, not more than five or six hundred men who embraced the faith of the Crescent.

Of

Of the surprise of Malta, very little is said in these Memoirs; and we shall pass over the battle of Alexandria*, with the scanty details of the various successes and defeats of the French in Egypt, and proceed to the extended account of Nelson's victory of the Nile, or, as it is styled, of Aboukir. We could not but conjecture that, in the details of this mortal blow to Bonaparte's hopes and dreams of eastern grandeur, some inaccuracy would prevail: but we do not observe much, and the whole is by no means favorable to the French. One positive error is a round assertion that the English ship *Bellerophon* was *compelled to strike*: when we need not observe that such an event never occurred. It is, however, very satisfactory to find Napoleon asserting that the disposition of the French ships, as formed by the Admiral and his two seconds in the centre, when attacked by the *Defence*, the *Bellerophon*, the *Majestic*, and the *Minotaur*, was very superior to that of the British; that Nelson had the smallest and worst ships; and that, if Villeneuve had not been asleep or afraid at this critical moment, the French fleet ought to have been victorious. Unfortunately, however, the *Orient* blew up, and 'suspended the action a quarter of an hour, though the French line, undismayed by this shocking spectacle, recommenced firing. Rear-Admiral Villeneuve, according to Nelson and the English, might have decided the victory even after this explosion. Even at midnight, had he got under way, he might have annihilated the English squadron.'

In the long tirade which is given here against the English, by drawing a tedious comparison between the navy of the two countries, we meet with this odd remark: 'The English discipline is perfectly slavish: it is patron and serf. It is only kept up by the influence of the most dreadful terror. Such a state of things would degrade and debase the French character, which requires a paternal kind of discipline, more founded on honour and sentiment.'†

* The chief circumstance worth notice about Alexandria is that, on searching into Alexander's tomb, a little statue in terra cotta, about a foot long, habited in the Greek style, with the hair curled with great art and meeting on the neck, was found. Napoleon says that it was quite a master-piece.

† This reminds us of a story that we heard the other day. An old servant of government having been told that a large squad of convicts were sailing for Botany Bay in a ship commanded by an officer of the navy, said, "I am very sorry to hear of such innovations; a navy-officer in charge of convicts! that will never do: poor fellows, they must not be treated as sailors are."

We next arrive at Bonaparte's explanation of the causes for which he quitted Egypt, and it is by no means satisfactory; consisting merely in the necessity which he conceived to exist for his presence in France. That return was certainly requisite to promote the objects of his ambition, but can scarcely atone for his desertion of the army in its hour of need.—Whatever were the real causes of this measure, he was received with enthusiasm on his arrival at Paris*, and soon acted that part which, by the turn of affairs on the memorable 18th of Brumaire, (9th November, 1799,) raised him to the consulship. In the narrative of this period, which is long, but interesting, we meet with his opinions of Barras, Ducos, Moulins, Sieyes, Talleyrand, Fouché, Bernadotte, Augereau, &c. Barras appears to have been negotiating with Louis XVIII. and Bonaparte at the same time, which seems to be completely proved in a late work†; and some curious details of Bernadotte's strong and even furious republican principles are here given. He deserted Bonaparte on the day on which his existence depended; and to this circumstance all their future dissensions may perhaps be traced.

The history of the stormy debates at St. Cloud, which gave to the Republic the four Consuls, is very spirited, and, we have no doubt, very true.

In the chapter on the Provisional Consuls, we have the characters of Maret‡, La Place, Daunou, La Garde, Gaudin Duke of Gaeta, Cambacérès, Lebrun, Monge, &c. The description of La Place's qualifications as Minister of the Interior is very amusing: that great mathematician was soon found totally inadequate to the post; and, says Bonaparte, he carried the doctrine of 'infinite littlenesses'§ into the business of administration.

We now proceed to those remarks on General Dumas's military work, in which Moreau's character is discussed; and to Napoleon's account of the passage of the St. Bernard and the battle of Marengo, which were the leading events of the year 1800. M. Dumas is of opinion that Moreau might have supplanted his rival, had he wished to have become the

* He asserts that Baudin, the deputy from Ardennes, died of joy when he heard of it.

† *Biographie des Hommes vivans*. 1816. tom.i. p. 214.

‡ Afterward Duke of Bassano, who, being a prisoner, was exchanged for Madame the daughter of Louis XVI.

§ This passage shews the translator to be no mathematician; the doctrine '*des infinimens petits*' cannot be rendered into English '*infinite littlenesses*.'

Monck of France, or had he possessed the mental resolution necessary for such an enterprize. From Bonaparte's own account, also, it is evident that he was jealous of this popular leader; for, although he affects to scorn such an insinuation, he has employed in these volumes considerable space * to prove his incapacity as a General, while he acknowledges that he sent him from Paris to command the army of the Rhine, one of the finest which had been ever assembled on the frontier; an incongruity which speaks very forcibly, and is greatly strengthened by the subsequent deportation of Moreau, on the unsustained assumption that he was engaged with Georges, Pichegru, &c., in the plot to assassinate the First Consul. In the tenth volume of Count Dumas's work, page 159., the very ably-written memoir which is the subject of this commentary may be found. Bonaparte has not, in reality, examined it candidly; for he has not noticed the manly and independent speech (pp. 180—183.) which his rival delivered before the tribunal that decided his fate: though he has given his letter in 1797, in which he denounces, as traitors to the Republic, those very men with whom he accuses him of afterward associating.

From Moreau, it is natural that our attention should turn to Pichegru, Georges, &c., but very scanty materials are afforded in these volumes for the formation of a good judgment † on the means or resources which they possessed: while, from the replies of Georges to his accusers, it seems very questionable whether he meditated actual assassination, or the assemblage of a mass of the discontented and the royalists. If he intended the latter, the secrecy with which he entered France, the facilities afforded for the safe passage of the many bodies of followers that he took from the shores of Normandy to Paris, and the shelter which they invariably found, make it evident that he had some foundation for his project of counter-revolution. The actual residence of an exiled prince of the blood of France on the frontier could scarcely have been a matter of choice, or have arisen from fortuitous circumstances. When asked whether he intended to assassinate the First Consul with the poniard of which the sheath was sewn into the lining of his coat, Georges fearlessly answered, " I would have attacked him with arms

* Pages 159. to 200. of M. Gourgaud's part, and from 38 to 59 of M. de Montholon's first volume.

† Dumas gives a very excellent account of the firm behaviour of Pichegru and Georges Cadoudal, which is well worth attention. See vol. x. pages 163. to 186.

similar to those borne by his escort and his guard; but I should not have done so until a French prince was in Paris; then I should have had all France to support me." With the same boldness he refused to name his associates: "There have been victims enough already," he said: "I do not desire to increase the number;" and Pichegru, with perfect self-possession, remained tranquilly silent.

In the twenty-second note of the *Historical Miscellanies*, Napoleon thus justifies himself respecting the death of Pichegru: 'I never committed crimes. What crime could have been more advantageous to me than the murder of the Count De Lille and the Count d'Artois? It was proposed to me several times; for instance by * * * and * * *. It would not have cost two millions. I rejected it with contempt and indignation. No attempt was ever made under my reign against the lives of those two princes.' He also avers that he was advised to put both Ferdinand and Don Carlos to death; and that numerous instances might be quoted in which such assassinations would have been good policy, but to which his love of fame and of order would not have allowed him to listen, independently of his feelings of humanity. We must add, indeed, that Count Dumas, and the author of the St. Helena MS., and in fact we believe most writers, have exonerated his memory from this foul stain. Dumas says very distinctly, "It is rather to be imagined that Pichegru, finding an ignominious death was certain, chose to escape from it by self-destruction;" and the extreme hardihood of his character renders such a choice very probable.

The war in Italy in 1800, and the battle of Marengo, are described and discussed at great length, both in the *Miscellanies* and the *Historical* part of this work: but, as we have already said, we are chiefly anxious to observe the account of the passage of the St. Bernard and the death of Desaix. Of the former, Napoleon speaks thus:

'The passage of St. Bernard, instead of that of Mount Cenis, offered the advantage of leaving Turin on the right, and acting in a country more covered and less known, and in which the movements could go on more secretly than on the high road of Savoy, where the enemy would of course have numerous spies. A speedy passage of the artillery appeared impossible. A great number of mules, and a considerable quantity of cases, to hold the infantry cartridges and the ammunition of the artillery, had been provided. These cases, as well as the mountain-forges, were to be carried by the mules, so that the real difficulty which remained to be surmounted was that of getting the pieces themselves over. But a hundred trunks of trees, hollowed out for the reception of the guns, which were fastened to them by their trunnions,

trunions, had been prepared before hand: to every piece thus arranged, a hundred soldiers were to be attached; the carriages were to be taken to pieces, and placed upon mules. All these arrangements were carried into execution by the Generals of artillery, Gassendi and Marmont, with so much promptness that the march of the artillery caused no delay: the troops themselves made it a point of honour not to leave their artillery in the rear, and undertook to drag it along. Throughout the whole passage, the regimental bands were heard; and it was only in difficult spots that the charge was beaten, to give fresh vigour to the soldiers. One entire division, rather than leave their artillery, chose to bivouac upon the summit of the mountain, in the midst of snow and excessive cold, instead of descending into the plain, though they had time to do so before night. Two half companies of artillery-artificers had been stationed in the villages of Saint Pierre and St. Remi, with a few field-forges for dismounting and remounting the various artillery carriages. The army succeeded in getting a hundred waggons over.

'On the 16th of May, the First Consul slept at the convent of St. Maurice, and the whole army passed the St. Bernard on the 17th, 18th, 19th, and 20th May.' (*Memoirs*, vol. i. p. 262.)

The remainder of this curious account is too long for extraction. The history of Napoleon's ample donation to his guide, and of his performing the descent of the glacier on a sledge, is also given; and, in a very long chapter, the taking of Milan, and the battle of Montebello, in which Lannes and Victor distinguished themselves against the Austrians, are described, as well as the battle of Marengo. The disposition of the French, though much uncertainty respecting the movements of the Austrians prevailed up to the moment of the action, was very fine: the field of battle could not be better chosen; and, by the skillful advance of Suchet from the mountains in rear of the right flank of the Austrian army, Melas was completely paralyzed in his efforts to extricate himself.

In the details on Marengo, Desaix, who arrived from Egypt shortly before the action, is represented in a conversation with the First Consul to have accused Kleber of most of the faults committed in that country; and also as having asserted that, if he had been left in the command of the army instead of Kleber, he would have preserved Egypt. It is easy to give the dialogues of the dead, but very difficult to cause the living to credit them. With regard to the battle itself, it appears from the sketch of the dispositions for it, that Desaix's division, which had been the central one, was detached as a van-guard before the action to observe the movements of the Austrians on Genoa: but that, when the Austrians were gaining ground, Bonaparte, in alarm, ordered
Desaix

Desaix back, although then distant about half a day's march. Lannes was retiring under an immense line of fire, while St. Cyr was endeavoring to turn the left of Melas. The division of Victor, according to Napoleon's recital, had in the mean time rallied; when Melas, confident that the victory was decided, left the command of the pursuit to General Zach. This officer, in endeavoring to destroy the retreating corps of Lannes, entangled himself with Saint Cyr: but, perceiving the mistake which Melas had committed, he poured in a tremendous discharge of artillery on Lannes, St. Cyr, and the newly arrived force of Desaix. At this critical moment, Desaix 'received orders' to charge a column of 6000 Austrians who were turning the left of Lannes: he was shot through the heart in advancing to the rescue, and expired instantly: 'by which stroke,' adds Napoleon, 'the Emperor was deprived of the man whom he esteemed most worthy of being his lieutenant.'—In the *Historical Miscellanies*, he also asserts, in contradicting the MS. of St. Helena, that Desaix did not carry the village of Marengo, which is generally believed, but that he was killed at the distance of a league and a half from it. If our readers will refer to our remarks on the account given of this battle by Count Dumas*, they will find that Bonaparte published a report of it in which he used these words: "The division of Desaix arrived, and the whole line rallied; Desaix formed his column of attack, and carried the village of Marengo, on which the centre of the enemy rested, but this great General was killed at the moment in which he decided an immortal victory;" and these are the very terms of which the writer of the MS. in question has made use. Dumas is of opinion that the whole merit of this victory is due to Kellerman. We suspect that the forgetfulness of the Ex-Emperor, and the absurdity of Count Dumas's unsustained notion, may cause posterity to ascribe all the glory to the unfortunate Desaix.

Jourdan, who was appointed minister of the Republic to the provisional government of Piedmont, is noticed with some praise in this section of the work. In reviewing his answer to Prince Charles, we gave no very favorable opinion of this General's character; and our ideas are not altered by his miserable *protest* in the second volume of Gourgaud, who has replied to him very triumphantly. †

In pursuing our researches connectedly, the events of 1801 now remain to be examined; of which the attack of Copenhagen by Lord Nelson, and the death of Paul I. of Russia,

* Rev. Vol. lxxxviii. p. 420. † Appendix, pp. 383, 384, 385, are

are chiefly discussed in these Memoirs. A plan of the battle of Copenhagen is given, as that of the Nile action had been before, perhaps because Napoleon was anxious to seize every opportunity in this work of shewing that he was not ignorant of nautical affairs. The description of Nelson's bold measure is tolerably faithful: but, in the account of the assassination of Paul, many lines, as in Sterne's *Sentimental Journey*, are filled only with asterisks; while the text gives us to understand very plainly that this crime was committed by English advice, and through the influence of English gold, and that it was Benigsen who completed it.

On the preparations for the invasion of England, which are scantily noticed, we shall reserve our remarks for a continuation of our report of the work of Count Dumas, which we are preparing; and, as the direct chronological history of the Memoirs ends with the event of which we have spoken above, we shall now merely glean a few fragments from the remaining unconnected occasional notes.

The copious historical notices of Egypt, in the second volume, published by M. Gourgaud, are most spiritedly and amusingly written, and deserve a separate article, which we regret that we cannot spare for them: the reader will do well to peruse the whole with great attention.

In the Notes on the History of the Revolution in St. Domingo, and in the History of Egypt, we find some excellent disquisitions on the manumission of the Negroes; and the curious manner, by which Bonaparte proposed to attain the desired end, is highly amusing. It appears that he had actually consulted theologians to prepare the total abolition of slavery, and the equalization of rights, by introducing polygamy into the colonies; restricting, however, the number of wives to three, a Black, a White, and a Mulatto; by which measure, in a few removes, the population would assume a new and universal shade, and all distinction be erased.

To the memoirs of Bernadotte but few pages are devoted. Bonaparte asserts that he is totally uneducated, and acknowledges that ambition, and the love of Bernadotte's wife, *Desirée*, were the motives which caused him to make a king of his marshal and a queen of the early favorite of his heart. We are also told that the Crown Prince, who is Napoleon's godson, was named Oscar from the impression which that character had made on the Emperor's mind in reading Ossian. — Madame *Desirée* has not changed her religion, as her husband has done, and seems to deserve much credit both for conduct and character; while, notwithstanding the charges of incapacity and want of probity brought against the King in

these Memoirs, we think that history must acquit him of the former at least, in consideration of the talent displayed in keeping his seat amid the general crush.

The notes on Rogniat's Art of War, and the long Essays on Tactics and Strategy, in these volumes, are the least interesting parts of them, while they remain mingled with anecdotic portions: but they will prove a valuable addition to military science, if called and separated at the conclusion of the work.

Of the removal of the Pope from Rome, and the attempt to establish the sacred college and the tiara in Paris, much is said by Bonaparte; and perhaps the best account that we can give of this division of his Memoirs will be by extracting the following sentences, in which the views that actuated him are perfectly told.

'It is a certain fact that Napoleon loved his religion; that he wished to contribute to its prosperity and honour, but at the same time to avail himself of it as a social instrument for repressing anarchy, strengthening his sway in Europe, increasing the reputation of France, and the influence of Paris — the object of all his thoughts. — Napoleon regretted that he could not transfer Saint Peter's from Rome to Paris; he was disgusted with the meanness of Notre-Dame.'

In the unconnected mention of Waterloo, we observe that Grouchy is blamed by his former master; but we suspect that Baron Gourgaud wrote this part of the work himself, since it very strongly resembles the statements and remarks which we reprobated in his publication on that battle.

The notes on 'Neutral Powers' of course give Bonaparte's views of the right of search, which has been so much canvassed; and which, in the present instance, serves only as a vehicle to drive over the old ground of some of the naval actions that annoyed him in the plenitude of his power, and which all his reflections served only to render hateful to him.

Perhaps the most curious paper in these Memoirs is the parallel between Christianity and Islamism; which is very ably drawn up, and entirely confutes the rumour that Bonaparte had throughout life ridiculed the faith in which he died. This paper will be found in the History of Egypt; and it is with regret we again state that we have not space for a larger examination of the documents relative to that country; which possess an amazing fund of information, delivered in the most lively manner, and are as interesting by the exhibition of novel views as by general accuracy.

The maps are so small that, though they possess Sidney Hall's usual clearness of expression, they are useless. They cannot

cannot be a part of Napoleon's work; and if not made larger and more numerous, they serve no other purpose than that of adding to the expence of the book.

In forming the selections and criticisms which we have thus given, our general opinion of these *Memoirs* has hitherto been withholden, but it is now proper to state it. Undoubtedly they make a vast addition to the stock accumulating so rapidly for the future historians of Napoleon's reign: they are amusing by their anecdotes and vivacity of expression; they give us a clear and just notion of their dictator's mind; and they corroborate most strongly the opinion which we have ever held of his character, in which ambition had usurped such a paramount sway that, during its career, the finer feelings of nature were almost wholly absorbed. The sacrifice of a thousand lives to what he deemed *glory* cost him less pain or emotion than the departing sigh of a friend or of a relative. This, however, is a common case with the warrior by profession; and his madness was only one of the many species of delusion which prompts erring man to sin. To do his shade the justice which it has sometimes been denied, we refer those who have followed us through this article to the touching letters which Bonaparte wrote to the widow of Brueys, when he was killed commanding at the Nile; and to Admiral Thevenard on the same occasion, when he lost a brave and estimable son.* It is impossible to repress a tear while perusing these simple yet noble condolences, and a sensation of regret that ambition should have ever entered a mind capable of thus feeling and thus expressing its emotions.

ART. II. *Notes during a Visit to Egypt, Nubia, the Oasis, Mount Sinai, and Jerusalem.* By Sir Frederick Henniker, Bart. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Murray. 1823.

OUR readers have not perhaps forgotten the "*Diary of an Invalid*" by Mr. Matthews, nor the sprightliness and good humor with which it abounded. An equal or greater buoyancy of spirit, and flow of cheerfulness, seem to have accompanied the Baronet whose name is prefixed to our present article, during a more toilsome expedition, and through regions less smiling and hospitable. He offers, indeed, but a slight repast to the antiquary or to the virtuoso, his object, as he tells us, being more the survey of nature than the investigation of the works of art; and, as the scene of his travels

* See Appendix to *Memoirs*, vol. ii. pp. 220: and 264.

did not extend beyond the neighbourhood of the second cataracts, and his visits to the Oasis, Mount Sinai, and Jerusalem were short, a more detailed notice could not fairly be expected from him: especially as he had a greater partiality for the amusements of drawing and shooting.

A vein of humor, sometimes tinged with sarcasm, and frequently rising to wit, runs through the entire volume: the author seems often, perhaps too often, to be laughing at the graver pursuits of the more scientific tourists, by whom Egypt has been lately investigated: he sees little or no beauty in an obliterated column; and he aims a happy blow or two at the idle diligence of 'the Francs who carry away mummies with as much anxiety as if related to them, and blocks of masonry with as much satisfaction as if they had found the philosopher's stone.' If we could conscientiously bring ourselves to make the complaint, we might say, that Sir Frederick keeps up too constant a fire of his peculiar humor, and that we feel ourselves somewhat fatigued with epigram and antithesis. His composition is too much like the smart sentences of Miss Never-out in the "Polite Conversations;" or rather like those of Congreve, where we are not allowed to recover from the effect of one stroke before we are saluted with another. The result of this unintermitted effort is an unavoidable uniformity of style and sentiment: each page is *idem et alter*; and it should seem that the author, in the selection of his subjects, adopted those only which administered the best food for ridicule and satire. All human societies, all countries and all places, have their ridiculous sides: but they who confine their contemplations exclusively to the ridiculous will present at best but partial and imperfect pictures.

Having freely expressed these remarks, it would be unfair in us to deny, at the same time, that the rapid and slight strokes of the traveller have not unfrequently a magical effect in bringing the scene, the character, and the costume, instantaneously before our eyes; and that, although an author who surveys manners and men almost through one unvarying medium, and to whom the whole world is little more than a farce, is not to be followed implicitly as a guide, we may join him with pleasure and even with profit as a companion. It is time, however, to let Sir Frederick speak for himself; and we extract the following passage from his second chapter, which is a picture of his first impressions on visiting Alexandria, and is thus headed:

' *Plague — Dogs — Obelisks — Pompey's Pillar — Canal — Cataracts — Flies.*

' Walked towards the obelisks of Cleopatra; they are situated at the edge of the new port. Within a few yards of the town, the

the butchers were drawing and quartering buffaloes: the sands fetid with entrails: sharks and dogs are the only scavengers. Here commences a wall, which is supposed to be a defence, and is called the City Wall; under it are frequent mounds of rubbish, such as are seen in the purlieus of London, where retiring citizens placard "*Belle vue*" upon a cottage. Attempting to pass the first of these filth hills, a pack of brindled wolf-dogs rushed down upon us, barking furiously as if they knew me to be a Christian. I had almost determined, Actæon-like, to fly, but stood at bay, and at length backed out of their dirty territories, the dogs following till we approached a second mound. Here a second kennel was let loose upon us, and the former, having handed us over to strict watch, retired. They have a method in their madness; and I would match them for frightening strangers against double the number of geese of the Capitol.

' The town wall runs between the water's edge and the obelisks: fragments of pillars and architectural remains, probably once connected with them, are visible under the neighbouring waves. Encountered the dogs once more, and entered the town.

' Met a crowd of Roman Catholics returning from mass: they have a neat chapel, which is not only tolerated by the government, but even surmounted by the Turkish flag to preserve it from insult. In Bucharest, the capital of a Turkish province, every religion is tolerated — except the Mahomedan — strange inconsistency. The Pope also has an armed force, and having an armed force has the word Peace inscribed upon his standard. Near the chapel stand three plain granite columns, that *may have been* part of a portico, or any thing else. I really cannot make them interesting: Denon has made a pretty picture of the subject; but the beauties of it do not exist. Nearly opposite is a ruined mosque, in which was found a noble sarcophagus, it was packed up cleverly by the French for the Louvre, but *il se trouve* in the British Museum; the *cross* is still evident on some of the stones used in this Turkish temple — but even the eagle is not obliterated from all the public buildings at Paris. I laboured onward over some acres of crockery: at Rome it is difficult to believe that Monte Testaccio is formed of such materials, but here we may fancy the wreck of all the potteries of Egypt. The city cisterns are filled but once yearly, by the overflow of the Nile; they are spacious, and under ground; they will soon fall into disuse probably, as a canal is about to be opened between the river and the town; at present I am watching a camel, he carries two goats' skins for water — kneels down at command near the opening of the cistern; the skins being filled, he springs up, and bears his burden to the town — if cunning did not master strength, camels and elephants would never submit to man. The obelisks of Cleopatra do not appear striking to one accustomed to those at Rome; even in size they yield to that standing before the church of St. John Laterensis. One of them is under sailing orders for London, in the other there is nothing so remarkable as to observe that the hieroglyphics on two of the sides are nearly

effaced by the pelting of the sand; such is the effect of minute particles even upon granite, while the sides exposed to the saline atmosphere have not suffered the slightest injury, and three thousand years have passed heedlessly by. These obelisks are called the *Needles* of Cleopatra: they have no eyes to them, but if they had, a cable six feet in diameter might pass through as easily as through the *Needles* of the Isle of Wight.

Pompey's Pillar stands without the walls; the distance at which it is seen at sea prepares one for the intelligence that it is nearly 100 feet in height: the shaft is said to be the loftiest in the world (as a single block). This *bel pezzo* of granite is in height superior to perhaps any house in London; and here, where the buildings are comparatively cottages, appears to great advantage; the capital (Corinthian order) is different as to material, and indifferent as to workmanship: in its character as a column it is less pleasing than many at Rome and Athens, and, as a monument, it is not to be remembered with Trajan's Pillar, nor with that in the *Place Vendôme* at Paris, nor with "*The Monument*" in London, it has not moreover any admonition on the shaft: it *may* have one upon the pedestal, because Quaresmius gives one and Hamilton gives another: the former says it was erected by Alexander; I leave the curious to settle the point whether it was erected in honor of Alexander, or of Diocletian, or of Severus — "*tulit alter honores.*" I did not ascend it, though not forgetful of the plan of flying a kite, as was done over the tower at Pisa. It is quite sufficient for me to be told by our captain, that he, in company with seventeen others, dined on the top. Encamped near the pillar is one of the Pasha's sons, whose duty is to superintend the operations going on at the new canal, and to prevent the labourers from deserting: these labourers are procured by conscriptions levied on the villages: Egypt is still "*the house of bondage.*" Met part of the governor's harem: each woman riding on a donkey, and covered with a mantle of black silk, as with a cloud. I should have mistaken them for bales of goods, can form no opinion of either face or figure: their master has lost his nose.

Rosetta rivals Alexandria in filth and wretchedness; though it is of better construction, and the gardens surrounding it are delightful.

The banana, the palm, the orange, lemon, cedrato, and hennéh, besides being objects of novelty and beauty, are all in bearing. The banana pleases me most, both in its fruit and in its appearance; the leaves are nearly six feet in length, and of a width to render them just elegant. The banana is called *Poma Paradisi*, but had it grown there, two leaves would have made a gown for Eve, instead of her making a shift with fig-leaves. The hennéh, loved-of-women, resembles myrtle. The various species of orange struggle for room, and the whole is surmounted by the palm-trees; their leaves resembling and drooping like ostrich feathers. I never saw a hot-house to please me so much, scarcely excepting

excepting a drawing-room lounge at Buckingham-gate. The trilingual stone that was discovered here is to be found now in the British Museum; no object of curiosity remains except the gardens. I wish that they were in London too.

In his notices of countries which have been recently explored by so many intelligent and scientific travellers, Sir Frederick touches rapidly and lightly on the topics that exercised their learned diligence; — and we think, therefore, that the most entertaining parts of his journal are those in which he sketches, with great powers of caricature and humor, the personal incidents of the expedition. His voyage to Damietta abounds with several pleasant adventures; and he also witnessed a singular ceremony.

‘The sound of music led us on shore at the village of Zeara, where a “fantasia” was given to celebrate the circumcision of the village children, who, undergoing the same operation in company, may, if they can, laugh at one another: this event occasions as much rejoicing to the Mohammedan parents as the christening of a son and heir in Christendom; two drums and two squeaking pipes formed the band; eight villagers were very awkwardly, but very innocently, handling some long poles, with which they pretended to strike at one another, but gave a minute’s notice as to what part of the body was the object of attack: during this, they kept time to the music like dancing bears; these poles are iron-bound at either end, and are the arms of the villagers; the dance and sham-fight are as much objects of delight to the Arabs as the Romaica to the Greeks: the jokes of our sword-stick players are serious; the band belonged to some ladies of easy or no virtue, who graced this tournament with their company, seated on horseback, and bedizened with feathers, grease, necklaces of onions, and other attractions; the clown upon a donkey, with his face to the tail, was the master of the ceremonies: he cleared the way for us, and did not forget becksheesh; his face was white-washed, and he was clothed, which is no slight disguise to an Arab; the ladies were without masks, which is a less happy conceit.’

Our facetious baronet accompanies the Chevalier Frediani to the Tanitic branch of the Nile as far as Om Faredge, whence they directed their course to the Bubastic branch. In the progress of their voyage, they determined on visiting Pelusium: when three hours’ walk brought them to the mouth of that branch, and, having forded it, they found themselves at the out-posts of a Bedouin encampment. Seven men sprang on them, four of whom presented pistols at their heads, a fifth raised an axe, and another ran forwards with a club towards the Shekh who accompanied them, as if to kill him, but suddenly dropt the weapon, exclaiming “Salam alekum — health to you.” The same ceremony was performed

performed by each individual of the two parties, and having thus given and received the Arab assurance of friendship, they were at liberty to consider themselves safe. 'To take aim at a person,' says Sir Frederick, 'is meant as a compliment, which is sometimes increased by firing. I hate compliments, particularly in the Arab fashion.' They were conducted to the Arab encampment, in which his accommodations are thus drolly and picturesquely described :

'Four hours' walk, and quite dark, when the assault of dogs warned us of our approach to the habitations of men or Bedouins : a party were seated on the sand round a glimmering fire ; an occasional ray exhibited them to horrible advantage : ten men, black beards, white teeth, half clothed, and completely armed ; what would Mrs. Radcliffe have given to have seen them, or I to have been away. Banditti when outbandittied on the stage are gentlemen in appearance compared to these Bedouins : they sprang up, as if taken by surprize ; we performed the ceremony of Salam alekum with the whole party ; in a few minutes a blazing fire was furnished by hospitality and curiosity ; our number increased by at least fifty, all armed, for arms are the first, and clothes a very secondary consideration. Pipes, coffee, boiled rice, and bread, which, in form and thinness, resembled pancakes, were soon prepared. These inhabitants of the desert "*practise* the laws of good breeding" with a punctilio that even Frenchmen would call ultra-polite : whenever an elderly man made his appearance, the whole party invariably stood up, and, unconscious of the applause that such conduct once obtained, offered the seat, according to priority of years : women were gliding among the trees, more anxious to see than be seen ! Pride and curiosity of Arab women, if Arab women have any, are severely checked. — The Franc fowling-piece is greatly admired ; English gunpowder is compared with Turkish : the grains of the latter are nearly as large as mustard-seed. Having been drawn on this expedition from a shooting walk, I had come without either coat, shoes, or stockings, and now had leisure to feel the cold — requested to be shown to my bed-room ; did not expect a flat candlestick and a pan of coals, but having been invited to a residence for three weeks, I did hope for a hut of some kind ; there was not one without women, and to be admitted into the same apartment with the females would be an innovation unprecedented in Arabian customs : we were therefore desired to huddle together in the sand, and a rush mat, big enough for the great bed at Ware, was spread over the whole party ; twelve Bedouins mounted guard in a circle round us ; one of them taking notice that I placed my fowling-piece carefully by my side, tied an old gun-barrel to a stick, without a lock, and offered it to my neighbour ; our guards disencumbered themselves of their clothes, and placing them upon their heads, were soon asleep in the sand ; we did not indulge in bed after day-break ; a sheep was killed, and *dejeuné sans fourchette* prepared — bread, rice, coffee, boiled mutton, and pipes — fingers

— fingers supplied the place of forks — this hastily finished, we took leave.'

Of Pelusium, once the key of Egypt, four red granite columns are all that remains. Having visited Tennys, from which the virtuosi have carried off every sign of its former grandeur, and the island of Toomah, the party returned to Damietta. We have had accounts of Grand Cairo *ad satietatem*; and there is a general echo among all travellers of its narrow and filthy streets: but we cannot refuse admission to the following delineation of its beauties, which reminds us not a little of the growling though good-natured manner of Matthew Bramble.

'The epithet "Grand" was applied to Cairo on account of its extent and magnificence, because that in the time of Mohammed it was considered a day's journey to traverse the city — but now an hour is sufficient. "Its magnificence excited a smile" in those days, and now "two different causes the same effect may give." The streets, if such they can be called, seldom exceed two yards in width, they appear always full of people; but the plague spreads by contact, and if the accounts of its ravages are true, where does this vast and fearless population come from? The Pasha has a carriage, a cardinal's at second-hand, similar to our Lord Mayor's waggon. How fortunate it is that there are not two carriages in Egypt, I know of only one street so wide as Cranbourn Alley. Franc-street has a strong gate fastened every night; it resisted the attempts of the Albanian soldiery in their last insurrection — such gates are frequent throughout the city, so that in the event of a riot the insurgents are easily trapped. Three inns — one has a garden, convenient in the plague season. The citadel is at the extremity of the town, at the foot of the Mokattam mountains — is commanded by a modern fortress — and that again by a neighbouring height — *on dit* that the French besieging it, planted their cannon on the nearest mosque — the Mussulmen would not fire at their place of worship — they make a virtue of surrendering.'

We must pass over the lively account of the pyramid of Cheops. After the discoveries of Belzoni and Caviglia, little information could have been expected on this almost exhausted subject from the worthy baronet; who travels over Egypt as a sportsman on a shooting excursion. We shall only observe that, on a second visit to the pyramid of Cephrenes, Sir Frederick mustered resolution to ascend it; and not a little both of address and of firmness was necessary: for it seems that, excepting some occasional holes for the fingers and toes, the sides are as smooth as a steep slanting slated roof. By these holes the adventurers had to scramble up, suspended as it were at twice the height of the Monument; and it required above half an hour to complete the ascent. On the summit is
a Cuphic

a Coptic inscription, no copy of which has been yet transcribed; and Sir Frederick avows that he did not think of copying it, as he was clinging to a stone, fearful of vertigo and of being blown over.

'To descend *safely*,' he says, 'is much more difficult than to mount, and the two super-dangerous places excited no little fear; at the first of them, while my body was dangling from my finger's ends, and my feet feeling in vain for a resting-place, and whilst I was calculating how soon I should fall, the guide tore me down very much against my will, holding me as he would have held a child over the railings of the Monument.'

We are not aware of any Europeans who have ascended the pyramid of Cephrenes, except three; — Captain Gordon of the navy, who found it a task of extreme difficulty and peril; Sir F. Henniker; and the companion of his enterprize, Lieutenant Macdonnell.

Mr. Legh investigated the crocodile mummy pits in the neighbourhood of the village of Mahabbie, and our readers have not perhaps forgotten his interesting account of the adventure: in which, it is said, the Arabs *acted* death for the double purpose of deterring travellers and extorting money. Sir Frederick made a fruitless attempt to explore the same caverns: but the fears of the Arabs marred the undertaking; and, having been conducted to a pit, which he supposes not to have been *the* pit, he 'returned to the surface of the earth,' after an hour and a half of ineffectual labor.

'Dendera (Tentyra) has been so often described in large square books, that to repeat what has been already said would be wearisome to us both. The first object of attraction is a propylon, on the left hand side of which, in passing through it towards the temple, are inscribed large human figures, accompanied with sacred writing! on the right hand are hieroglyphics *only*, such as birds and other signs — the same is observable on the two other gateways belonging to this temple — perhaps the circumstance is of little importance to either of us, but the *curious* may like to trace the superstitions of the Greeks and Romans to the Egyptians, as half way towards the creation, and it will be of great moment to ascertain whether Adam was a right or a left-handed man.

'Arrived at the Portico; I am lost in admiration, even though the concomitant filth hill is nearly on a level with the top of the portal. — The torus and overhanging cornice, the peculiar and characteristic beauties of Egyptian architecture, are here in full perfection; pillars that in size and number surprize and baffle the eye, solidity that speaks of the sublime, and carving on stone, that in quantity and beauty resembles a picture-gallery. The fabric is two hundred and eighty paces in circumference, and there is scarcely a spot

spot of either wall, column, ceiling, or staircase but what is ornamented with lithography. Time, to spare so beautiful a work, has passed by without destroying, and the most delicate lines ever formed by the chisel remain uninjured, except by man. On one wall, less than fifteen feet in extent, are sixty-nine rows of sacred characters beautifully engraven — the hieroglyphics are of three kinds — a simple line — *bas-relief* — and a relief in a contour — the contour is four inches in depth. That substantiality may not be wanting even in thought, the building partakes of the pyramidal form, and there is scarcely an aperture visible, lest a broken exterior should render its solidity imperfect: the outer wall is seven feet thick, not petty bricklayer's work, but every stone in itself seven feet in thickness; and as if not sufficiently stable by its own weight is held by ingots of iron. Each stone of the architrave is more than twenty feet in length, and the pillars are twenty-two feet in circumference. On the capital of every pillar is represented Isis quadrifrons, unfortunately only the lips of which remain; the other features of the face have been carefully destroyed. Had they been suitable to the lips, notwithstanding their coldness, they might have excited the idolatrous sensations of Pygmalion.

13th. — Employed this day in examining and drawing. The pillars which had puzzled my arithmetical eye yesterday are only twenty-four in number, they stand in four rows, the intercolumniation is not greater than the diameter of the pillar, and seven feet is too short a space between columns that are twenty-two feet in circumference; they appear crowded in a nest, and overgrown — the ceiling instead of resting upon them is raised upon cross beams, and consequently divided into channels. Pressed by a want of light and air, and unwilling to destroy the integral strength of the exterior, the architect has compromised the matter by cutting embouchures, or loop-holes, which, though they may escape the eye when distant, appear to a near observer as paltry as the mouths of letter-boxes; the very celebrated zodiac occupies less than half of a ceiling, which is only twenty feet by twelve, and it is to be lamented that hieroglyphics, though beautifully executed, are obsolete and useless. The chamber of the zodiac is in the upper story of the building, near to which is a flight of steps that conducts to the highest roof or gazebo; this was probably used as an observatory. Among the hieroglyphics is represented a staircase with deities ascending. The study of astronomy is natural in a country where telescopes are not required, and to hold commerce with heaven is the part of priesthood. There are very few buildings that afford so much delight as the temple of Dendera; two days at least are gratefully employed here; but a work of such labour and expense would have been preferable if undertaken by the taste and elegance of the Grecian school.

We have little inclination to enter into the controversial war, which is now raging between the savans of Paris and some of our own virtuosi concerning the antiquity of this celebrated

celebrated temple. Both Mr. Banks and Mr. Hamilton, — no indifferent judges of such matters, — think that it is not an Egyptian building; that it is of a comparatively recent date; and that the style and the freshness of the architecture have no analogy with the ruins of ancient Egyptian temples. The question, however, is important only in one point of view. The celebrated zodiac, which occupied a large part of the ceiling, and which we lament to say has been lately carried away and transplanted by a scientific depredator to Paris, (M. Lelorrain,) was first discovered by General Dessaix; and some philosophers of the revolutionary period congratulated themselves on having discovered a monument, which would throw back the creation of the world to a point of time far beyond the Mosaic records, and thus destroy the validity of the Scriptures. Dupuis and Fourier assigned to it an antiquity of fourteen and fifteen thousand years: but the Abbé Testa contends, and on a satisfactory ground of inference, that the date of the ceiling cannot be anterior to the third century before the Christian æra; and Visconti brings it down to the first century after Christ. The arguments used by the latter are ingenious, but built on an erroneous basis. The sign of the Libra, he contends, which is one of the figures on the planisphere of Dendera, was not introduced before the time of Augustus, the space dedicated to Libra having been antecedently occupied by the claws of the Scorpion. Libra, however, is an Egyptian sign. The Romans took their signs from the Greek zodiac, which wanted the sign of Libra. We have ourselves seen this celebrated astronomical monument; and we grieve to say that the spoliator, in order to reduce the weight of the block, has cut off two feet from each end, a process by which the ornamental parts of it have sustained irreparable mutilation.

We must pass over Thebes, the temple improperly called the Memnonium, the tombs of the kings, out of which Belzoni has drawn so valuable a prize, and Medinet Abou, described by Hamilton and others.

Ebsambul Sir Frederick terms the *ne plus ultra* of Egyptian labor, and an ample recompense for his journey: but the antiquities of this place have been too frequently and too recently described, to render the present account either novel or interesting. He was, however, obliged to dig his way through the sand, in order to get a view of the gigantic statues which support the roof of the temple; and having been buried alive for four hours, he found some difficulty in escaping, because, whenever he moved, the sand 'poured down as subtle as quicksilver.' He had constructed a kind
of

of wind-sail, which supplied them with air; and 'there was really,' he observes, 'no danger, for had the sand descended, the wind-sail would still have supplied them with air, and they would have been dug out *in a fortnight*.'

We cannot follow this entertaining journalist to the Oasis: but we relaxed the gravity of our critical muscles at his exact description of travelling on a camel: 'The motion is very disagreeable. He goes whizzing through the air, though he does not advance three miles per hour, and at every step he causes the same sensations as a rocking boat. 27th Feb. — 'I am already land-sick, and have made a calculation that in each journey of fifteen hours, I have been bumped like a school-boy fifty-eight thousand times.'

The convent of Mount Sinai is well described by Sir Frederick: but, after Burckhardt's account, it would be a wearisome repetition to our readers. The raptures of the author when the vale of Ascalon burst on his view are well expressed, and shew that he is endued with sufficient taste and feeling for the higher walks of composition.

'— Arrive at the top of a ridge of hills, and behold the ocean! — This was, perhaps, the most grateful moment that ever I experienced. I had been journeying in a desert, and now beheld the noblest feature in nature; I had been exposed to ceaseless danger: and henceforth my safeguard is the flag of my country; I had been friendless and alone, and there is now but one step to England. The sons of Africa, mounted on the Alps, felt not such delight in surveying the plains of Italy, as I now felt in looking on the vale of Ascalon. The harassed Greeks, whose every step was toil, and every thought was woe, knew not such rapture when first the sea burst upon their view, as I now felt while gazing on the ocean that invited me to my country, and the waves of which were dancing round my home.'

Sir Frederick was disappointed by Jerusalem; and most of the travellers who have visited that city, with the single exception perhaps of Chateaubriand, have expressed similar feelings. 'It has not,' says the Baronet, 'one symptom of commerce, comfort, or happiness.' On an excursion to the river Jordan, he was attacked by banditti, and the adventure must be told in his own words:

'The route is over hills, rocky, barren, and uninteresting; we arrived at a fountain, and here my two attendants paused to refresh themselves; the day was so hot that I was anxious to finish the journey, and hurried forwards. A ruined building, situate on the summit of a hill, was now within sight, and I urged my horse towards it; the janissary galloped by me, and, making signs for me not to precede him, he rode into and round the building, and then motioned me to advance. We next came to a hill,
through

through the very apex of which has been cut a passage, the rocks overhanging it on either side. I was in the act of passing through this ditch, when a bullet whizzed by, close to my head; I saw no one, and had scarcely time to think when another was fired some short distance in advance; I could yet see no one; the janissary was beneath the brow of the hill, in his descent; I looked back, but my servant was not yet within sight. I looked up, and within a few inches of my head were three muskets, and three men taking aim at me. Escape or resistance were alike impossible. — I got off my horse. Eight men jumped down from the rocks, and commenced a scramble for me; I observed also a party running towards Nicholai. At this moment the janissary galloped in among us with his sword drawn; I knew that if blood were spilt I should be sacrificed, and I called upon him to fly. He wounded one man that had hold of me; I received two violent blows, intended I believe for him; from the effect of one I was protected by my turban — I was not armed — the janissary cut down another Arab, and all the rest scrambled up the rocks, the janissary turned his horse and rode off at full gallop, calling on me to follow him, which I did on foot: in the mean time the Arabs prepared their matchlocks, and opened a fire upon us, but only a few of their shots came very near. We had advanced about a league, when two of the banditti made a show of cutting us off. A sudden panic seized the janissary, he cried on the name of the Prophet, and galloped away. I called out to him that there were but two — that with his sword and pistols, if we stopped behind a stone, we could kill them both; he rode back towards the Arabs, they had guns, and the poor fellow returned full speed. As he passed I caught at a rope hanging from his saddle — I had hoped to leap upon his horse, but found myself unable; — my feet were dreadfully lacerated by the honey-combed rocks — nature would support me no longer — I fell, but still clung to the rope; in this manner I was drawn some few yards, till, bleeding from my ankle to my shoulder, I resigned myself to my fate. As soon as I stood up, one of my pursuers took aim at me, but the other casually advancing between us, prevented his firing, he then ran up, and with his sword aimed such a blow as would not have required a second; his companion prevented its full effect, so that it merely cut my ear in halves and laid open one side of my face; they then stripped me naked. These two could not have known that their friends were wounded, or they would certainly have killed me; they had heard me vote their death, and which we should in all probability have effected, had the janissary, a Turk, understood me. I had spoken to him in Arabic.

‘ It was now past mid-day, and burning hot; I bled profusely; and two vultures, whose business it is to consume corpses, were hovering over me. I could scarcely have had strength to resist, had they chosen to attack me. In about twenty minutes Nicholai came up; his only sorrow was for my wound, and the loss of the sword, which was his own. — “ You cannot live, Sir, you cannot

live !

live! they have taken away my sword; I asked them to give it back to me, but they would not." He then related his part of the adventure — ten men had beset him — his horse was not to be depended upon — the gun was not loaded; and there were many Arabs on every side, so that retreat was impossible. The janissary now came to our assistance, and put me on his horse; we passed by a rivulet of tempting water, but they would not allow me to drink, though I was almost choked with blood. At length we arrived about three, P. M., at Jericho. — The "walls of Jericho" are of *mud*; at a corner of the town stands a small stone building, the residence of the governor: within the walls of it is the town reservoir of water, and horses for eight Turks. My servant was unable to lift me to the ground; the janissary was lighting his pipe, and the soldiers were making preparations to pursue the robbers; not one person would assist a half-dead Christian; after some minutes a few Arabs came up, and placed me by the side of the horse-pond, just so that I could not dip my finger into the water; one of the soldiers, as he went forth, took the rug from his horse, and threw it to me as a covering. The governor armed himself, and the whole garrison sallied forth in pursuit of the banditti. — This pool is resorted to by every one in search of water, and that employment falls exclusively upon females — they surrounded me, and seemed so earnest in their sorrow, that, notwithstanding their veils, I almost felt pleasure at my wound; one of them in particular held her pitcher to my lips, till she was sent away by the Chous. I called her, she returned, and was sent away again; and the third time she was turned out of the yard; she wore a red veil, and therefore there was something unpardonable in her attention to any man, especially to a Christian: she, however, returned with her mother, and brought me a lemon and some milk. I believe that Mungo Park, on some dangerous occasion during his travels, received considerable assistance from the compassionate sex.

' About sunset, the secretary of the governor provided me with a shirt. I was then put into a mat, and deposited in a small dark cell, but even there I was not at rest, for a cat made two pulls at my ear during the night — it was a very Mohammedan cat.

' Early on the following morning, the governor informed me, that he had scoured the roads of the banditti; and that as there was no doctor in Jericho, every thing was ready to convey me to Jerusalem. He had furnished me with some of his own cavalry, and had added a few pedestrians from the town; I was then tied on a camel, like a dead sheep, the Turkish horsemen preceded me, and, scouting over the rocks, afforded, I doubt not, a very pretty scene; but I was complaining of the motion of the camel, of the ropes that bound me, and the want of covering, while at every step my wound opened and shut like a quivering door. I begged to be transposed to a horse, but my guides refused to stop under pretence of danger.'

In consequence of this melancholy accident, Sir F. H. kept his bed twenty days: when, impatient of the penance of so long

long a sojourn in the Latin convent, it was with no little pleasure that he at length took leave of "the blessed city." His homeward journey was by Nazareth, Acre, Ephesus, Smyrna, Constantinople, and Vienna.

We must now also *take leave*, but a more reluctant leave, of this agreeable traveller; heartily thanking him for the "broad grins" into which he has so frequently distorted our melancholy visages. A professed joker cannot, indeed, be always successful, for his wit will occasionally burn dimly: but that of Sir Frederick rarely goes out, and he is never absolutely dull. — We must, however, be pardoned for reminding him that the derivation of the word *devil* from Typhon, through the medium of the German word *Tyfel*, is but a poor attempt; and that he might as well have omitted his intrigue with a native woman, and the adventure of his escape through a mud-wall. Like our old friend Strap in Roderick Random, Sir Frederick seems to be of an amorous complexion: but he ought at least to have had the delicacy to conceal his amours. He is, moreover, rather too much addicted to find fault, and gives us an undue share of English grumbling at annoyances to which every traveller in Egypt must submit: viz. dogs — hard-bumping camels — Jews — Arabs, &c. &c. &c. Yet, as it is not often that our labors are recreated by so sprightly and pleasing a companion, we cannot but offer to him our sincere good will and "heartly commendations" at parting.

This volume is illustrated by a number of engravings, from drawings by the author which do credit to his pencil.

ART. III. *Memoirs of a Captivity among the Indians, &c.* By John D. Hunter.

[Article concluded from p. 256.]

THE Indians are very thinly dispersed over the temperate and more fertile parts of the country which Mr. Hunter describes, and where we might, apparently with great reason, have expected the contrary: but abundance and variety of game, the spontaneous production of esculent plants, softness of climate, and facilities for satisfying all the wants of Indian life, render the possession of these regions a subject for perpetual contention, and are the proximate causes of what Mr. H. calls this 'unnatural reversion.' No: the earth in its uncultivated state is the common property of the human race; and that which is common to all being therefore peculiar to none, it is perfectly *natural* that man should fight for the most

most productive spots; although, by the repetition of these contests, they are left untenanted. War seems to be a state *natural* to man in every condition, — from the rudest societies to the most artificial, from savage life to the most perfect systems of political union. War is the matter of which history has been formed, from the times of the kings of Babylon, Assyria, and Egypt, to that of the kings in congress at Leybach and Verona. It is an incontestible truth, said a celebrated author of the last century, that there is more havoc made in one year by men of men, than has been made by all the lions, tygers, panthers, ounces, leopards, hyenas, rhinoceroses, elephants, bears, and wolves, on their several species, since the beginning of the world; though these agree ill enough with each other.

We who live in a civilized and highly refined state of society are apt to think that the physical and moral condition of the roving Indians must be most wretched; and when Mr. Hunter first saw the large, and to his view magnificent houses at New Orleans, the numerous ships in the harbour, and the bustle of business among a multitude of people, he was impressed with the grandeur of civilization, as well as with its comforts and conveniences. Soon, however, disgusted with the tumultuous debauchery and intemperance of some of the lower classes, and the filth, rags, and squalid looks of others, he tells us that he sighed 'for the woody retreats and uncontaminated manners of the tawny children of the wilderness.' That state which is proudly denominated Civilized is not pure gain. Mr. Hunter first cast his eye on it as an inhabitant of some other world might be supposed to cast his eyes on this; and he was dazzled by the glare and glitter of the scene on one side, but shocked by the extremes of wretchedness on the other. In civilized countries, the most luxurious and the most miserable of the human race are to be found: but, among the Indians of North America, those extremes are unknown which poverty and affluence exhibit in every city and town of Europe. Poverty, then, is the creature of civilized life: degenerate and unhappy offspring! the Indians know nothing of it; and their existence, somebody has said, is a continual holiday compared with the state of the poor of Europe. If civilization, therefore, has heightened the enjoyments of some, it has aggravated the miseries of others, by giving to their feelings a keener sensibility; and by presenting to them the painful contrast of their own forlorn condition, with the repose and indulgence which they see others enjoying around them.

" Though poor the *Indian's* hut, his feasts though small,
He sees his little lot the lot of all,

Sees no contiguous palace rear its head,
To shade the meanness of his humble shad;
No costly lord the sumptuous banquet deal,
To make him loathe his vegetable meal."

The Whites, the civilized Whites, are making rapid encroachments on the Indian tribes, and driving them from their native territories; and Mr. H. apprehends that they will continue to do so till their career 'is terminated by the total destruction of all the Indians on the eastern side of the Rocky Mountains.' Yes. Civilization has opened to man destructive views, and given him the means of indulging them. "From the earliest dawns of policy to this day," says the writer before quoted, "the inventions of men have been sharpening and improving the mystery of murder, from the first rude essays of clubs and stones to the present perfection of gunnery, cannoneering, bombardment, mining, and all those species of artificial and refined cruelty in which we are now so expert." The Whites civilize the Indians as settlers clear a forest — by felling all before them!

As the Indian nations speak different languages, and not different dialects of the same language, they are often obliged, in order to make themselves understood by each other, to adopt pantomimic signs, in which they are extremely dexterous. Having no alphabetic characters in writing, they make use altogether of hieroglyphics.

They inscribe their correspondence, and such subjects as require to be recorded, on the inner bark of the white birch (*Betula papyracea*), or on skins prepared for the purpose.

Styles of iron, wood, or stone, and brushes made of hair, feathers, or the fibres of wood, are used to delineate or paint the most prominent objects embraced in their subjects; the remainder is to be supplied by the imagination of the reader.

If, for instance, they wished to describe the surprize of a party of their hunters by their enemies, and their rescue by white people, they would first imprint the tracks of the buffalo in advance; next, as many footsteps as there were hunters, provided the number was small, if not, they would draw as many large footsteps as there were tens, and smaller ones for those of the fraction of that number, the whole arranged in disorder; then the number of the assailing party would be imprinted in the same manner, and the nation to which they belonged be pointed out by some emblem of its chief, as that of a wolf for a Pawnee chief; finally, in the rear of the Pawnees, which should also be represented in disorder, the number of the rescuing party would be drawn as before, and their national character distinguished by the representation of its flag. The number of their own, and that of their friends slain, would be indicated by the number of footsteps painted

painted black, and the wounded by those partially so coloured; while that of their enemies would be distinguished by red paintings, in precisely the same manner. If they thought it necessary, the description would extend to the country, or even place where the surprize happened; as for instance, if it was either in a prairie, or in woods, or on the margin of a river; prairie grass, trees, or a stream, would be represented according as the occurrence happened; and the place would be characterized by the presentation of some generally known object, at or in its neighbourhood.

In fine, the Indians experience little or no difficulty in describing or understanding any incident or subject in this way. The chiefs, especially if any misunderstanding had previously existed, constantly wear on their robes the delineated boundaries of their hunting-grounds, according to stipulations entered into by the disputing parties. These boundaries are also drawn on skins, and deposited in their public lodges, as records to be referred to on necessary occasions. They likewise design very correct maps, in which the rivers, hills, trails, and other circumstances worthy of notice, are very correctly laid down; they also very readily do the same on the sand or earth, for the information of strange travellers. In their marches, they inscribe instructions or any other information deemed necessary, for the spies or detached parties, on smooth-barked trees. Their distinguished warriors register on skins all the remarkable incidents of their lives: which, with the exception of those they are buried in, are uniformly kept by their relatives as sacred relics and testimonies of honourable descent for many succeeding generations. They sometimes cut with hard stones emblematical representations of remarkable events, &c. on soft or friable rocks, which, as their mode of computing time is very imperfect, soon cease to be interesting, and are forgotten. And the same skill is extended to ornamenting their pipes, and various domestic utensils.

Mr. Hunter says that the women seldom raise more than three or four children. They suckle an infant from two to three years, which practice he ascribes in some measure to the difficulty of procuring nutriment adapted to infant organs, and in some measure to the belief that it retards or impedes farther child-bearing. He never knew an instance, however, of entire sterility; and females suffer so very little of those "pains and perils" of gestation and labor which are experienced in civilized countries, and indeed are so little subject to any disease, that the death of an Indian woman, except from the ordinary decay of the organs of life, is a rare occurrence. The case is not the same with the men; whose laborious marches, exposure to the inclemencies of weather and the tomahawk of the enemy, and long abstinence from food followed by inordinate indulgence of appetite, often produce

disease and death. Women, therefore, generally live the longest : but instances of great longevity are not unfrequent in both sexes, and their mental faculties are usually preserved to the last. The young are instructed to regard and reverence old age : they are always silent in the presence of those who have attained it ; and that counsel, which from an equal or middle-aged person would be unheeded, when it passes from the lips of an old man is regarded as oracular, and most scrupulously followed. The young are also taught to condemn falsehood, and the frequent violation of this most salutary injunction is sure to involve the offender in loss of character. Theft is deemed execrable, and indeed is seldom practised among Indians, except on their enemies ; when no dishonor is attached to it, for to injure an enemy is a maxim as fervently inculcated as to benefit a friend. Adultery and murder are strictly prohibited ; and the former is generally punished by separation, unless it takes place with the husband's consent. Crimes are few, and punishments usually appropriate. In general, says Mr. H., their virtues are limited, like their vices :

' But it must be understood that I allude to those which are uncontaminated by any intercourse with the white people. Where the fact is otherwise, the proportion is hideously altered ; for the Indians readily adopt, in an aggravating degree, their examples in respect to the latter, while from necessity they remain strangers to the former. I say, from necessity ; because mankind in all ages have been the creatures of example ; and the Indians, with a very few exceptions, have only had an opportunity for imitating the most abandoned of their species. Besides, from education they have been taught to pursue that course of life which would present the most extensive means for their sensual gratification. Vice, in all its various forms, is the concomitant of their intercourse with the dissolute portion of civilized life ; and it is cultivated with great zeal by a majority of the traders who visit them, because it most effectually breaks down the lofty notions of independence and superiority, entertained by the Indians, and renders them the unresisting dupes to cupidity and fraud. And, I repeat, the benevolent of our race trust their hopes of benefiting the Indians on a " sandy foundation," so long as this kind of intercourse is tolerated.'

As far as Mr. H.'s acquaintance extends, he considers that the Indians ' are universally Theists, and have, according to their traditions, from immemorial time worshipped *only* the Deity,' the Great Spirit, the one Supreme and Intelligent Being who created and governs all things. That a system of theocracy, thus pure and uncorrupted, should be found among savages, might well excite some surprise : but Mr.

Hunter

Hunter dissipates it a few pages farther on, by informing us that, when they are suffering under a severe affliction, the Indians pray with equal fervency to an *Evil* spirit; who, though inferior to the Good Spirit, has sufficient power and is constantly employed in devising means to torment human beings. By the term Spirit, they have an idea of a being who can be present and yet invisible. The Great Spirit they believe to be possessed of a corporeal form, though of a nature infinitely excellent, and which will endure for ever, without change. They have indistinct notions, also, of subordinate agents to these greater powers of good and evil, which invisibly hover round and influence the actions of men, and on ordinary occasions are the immediate dispensers of rewards and punishments. The belief of a future state of existence, and of their accountability to the Great Spirit, is general, if not universal: but they associate this belief with natural things, having no idea of the soul or of intellectual enjoyments; and they expect to become, in their proper persons, after death, the perpetual inhabitants of a delightful country, where a continual spring and cloudless sky prevail, and where game will be abundant. They have no particular days set apart for devotional exercises, but recur to them on certain occasions; such as the declaration of war, the return of peace, the getting in of harvest, the discovery of a fresh spring, the renewal of the moon, &c.: but a day seldom passes with an elderly Indian, or others who are esteemed wise and good, in which a blessing is not asked from or thanks returned to the Giver of Life; sometimes audibly, but most generally in the devotional language of the heart. They believe in a metempsychosis, at least of those who have led cowardly and vicious lives, or have been guilty of treachery; and it is supposed that malignant spirits will sink the canoes of such characters in their passage across the great waters to the other world, and either leave them struggling against the floods, or strand them on some barren shore, and transform them into the shape of beast, or bird, or reptile, according to the enormity of their guilt. This metamorphosis is conceived to be repeated in the same individual according to his offences, till he has atoned for them all, and, in his proper character, has merited a residence in Elysium.

The sacerdotal office, in the strict sense of the word, is generally unknown among the Indians: but they have numerous prophets, if they may not be called priests, who found their pretensions to a knowledge of the future by interpreting dreams, which the Indians suppose are inspired by invisible beings, and are the faithful foreboders of unavoidable events. The title of Prophet is sometimes awarded to individuals of

superior wisdom and virtue, but is more commonly assumed by pretenders, and supported by juggling tricks and impostures practised on the credulity of those who attend to them. 'The Indians are scrupulous observers of their engagements, prompt and steady friends, active and inveterate enemies, sincere in religious duties, and in fact perform all their duties after the manner in which they have been educated, *heart in hand*.'

War is the great object of education; and all the duties of life connected with their preservation, matrimonial alliances, and their amusements, are directed to it. Their perceptions are quick, their judgments clear, their arguments cogent, their eloquence figurative, impassioned, and impressive. They sketch resemblances of men and beasts, delineate maps of countries with considerable accuracy, and chisel hieroglyphics in the rocks. They observe some of the heavenly bodies, and direct their way by them across the trackless prairies with as much accuracy, in general, as the mariner steers his ship by means of the compass. Their music is very barbarous: but they have instruments resembling the tambourine, the drum, and Pandean pipes, on which they perform to regular cadence. — They marry young, and instances of celibacy beyond the period of maturity are very rare. Little restraint prevails among the sexes; and, though some tribes provide separate sleeping apartments for males and females, this is a refinement not very usual.

'The custom which tolerates this intimacy among the Indians exists without producing any criminal desire; and we find chastity as common a virtue among those Indians who have not been corrupted by an intercourse with the Whites, as it is, or ever has been, among any people on earth. Indeed, the reason why travellers, who have visited the Indians, so liberally accuse their females of an opposite trait of character, is not because they are less virtuous than the females of civilized life, but because their innocence and artlessness render them more liable to become the dupes of accomplished villains; and because when they have transgressed, they do not become outcasts, but retain their standing in society; thus inducing the appearance that the practice is generally tolerated.'

Whatever attachment a young Indian may feel towards one of the other sex, he never discloses it until he has acquired the reputation of a warrior or a hunter: indeed, if he allowed his partiality even to be suspected before that period, he would be sure to suffer the mortification of a refusal, and become the derision of the warriors and the contempt of the squaws. On the contrary, he who has gained any high reputation

tation in the field of battle, or the chase, has abundant overtures from the young females, who deem a connection with any one so distinguished as very honorable; and it often happens that the same individual has to divide his favors among several *fair* candidates, who enter on their new relations and discharge their respective duties in the most perfect harmony. After the death of her husband, the sooner a squaw marries again the greater regard she is considered to shew for his memory. — The women very commonly go to a considerable distance from their villages to meet a returning war-party; and, on finding that their husbands have fallen in battle, they pull their hair, tear their flesh, — and lay siege to some favorite warrior; whom they will not suffer to depart till he has promised to revenge the death of their deceased husbands. Promises thus given are considered as matrimonial engagements of the most sacred kind, and are never violated. After the preliminaries of marriage are arranged, the connections and friends of the parties are invited to attend the ceremony at the residence of the bride.

‘ On this occasion, after the guests are assembled, the youthful Indian takes his intended by the wrist; occupies a central situation in regard to the party, and, in a standing position, candidly proclaims the affectionate attachment he entertains for her; promises to protect her and provide her with game, and at the same time presents her with some comparatively imperishable part of a buffalo, elk, deer, &c. as a pledge of his faithful performance. The female, on her part, makes a similar declaration of attachment; promises to cultivate the corn, &c.; transact the other offices of her station, and pledges the faithful performance by presenting her husband an ear of corn, or some other article to which it becomes her province to attend. The new married couple are now greeted with the kind wishes of all present; and the remainder of the day, and a part, or the whole of the following night, is passed in feasting, mirth, and festivity.’

Although polygamy is allowable, the Indians in general have only one wife, and they can get rid of her without much difficulty. If an Indian grows tired of his squaw, he hints his dissatisfaction to her connections, and goes out on some hunting excursion, without saying whether or when he shall return.

‘ During this time, if a separation should be disagreeable to his companion, she appears exceedingly solicitous to atone for any misconduct of her own, and uses every possible means in her power to conciliate her husband, and regain his affections and regard, which very frequently are attended with the sought-for result: but should she fail in her endeavours, her husband,

after burying the pledge he received at their marriage, deserts her altogether, and never after is heard to mention her name. She is branded as a bad squaw, but, nevertheless, soon finds another husband, to whom she usually proves an excellent wife, to avoid, perhaps, the repetition of a similar mortification and suffering. Repudiated squaws are more anxious to marry than any others, in order to do away the disgrace they are conceived to labour under. On occasions of this kind the squaw is left in possession of the lodge, &c., and generally of all the children, though the husband sometimes takes one or two of the boys, provided they are of a sufficient size not to require the further care of a mother.

So sensible are the Indians of the political importance of perpetuating their families, that they frequently adopt the children of others on the loss of their own; sometimes the brother of the deceased becomes the husband of the widow; but the most frequent source of continuance is from prisoners taken in battle, and who, but for this preferment, would be condemned to tortures and death. The warrior thus chosen assumes the name of the deceased, and attaches himself to his new wife and to her tribe. Each warrior makes a provision for the aged, infirm, and needy who are related to him; and an Indian who failed in these sacred duties, whatever renown he might have acquired in the battle or the chase, would be despised. To the credit of their morals, says Mr. Hunter, few such are to be found, except when debauched by the vices of the white people. To a friend, to a stranger, and to any person in distress, their kindness and hospitality know no bounds; and they will accompany on his journey one who has lost his way, or who is indisposed, for two or three days together. An Indian who has promised protection will assuredly afford it, and he will freely sacrifice his life in defending the safety of his guest.

Next to war, hunting is esteemed the most honorable occupation; and the youths are trained to the destruction of such animals as are necessary for food or valuable for their furs, from the time when they are first able to bend the bow. The destruction of game is effected by every artifice that can be devised. The Indians will rise early, hunt late, fast long, and pursue their object through forests and prairie grass, by trails which none but themselves can discover. The rifle, the lance, the bow and arrow, are used against the elk, the deer, and the buffalo, as circumstances require; large herds of which are sometimes surrounded by the Indians, or driven into impassable ravines, and as many destroyed as necessity requires: but, says Mr. H., 'I never knew a solitary instance of

of their wantonly destroying any of these animals, except on the hunting-grounds of their enemies.' The Indians are very expert in imitating the voices of animals. Thus, they use the head of a buck, elk, or deer, with its horns, as a decoy: then secrete themselves, beat the bushes, and at the same time imitate the wooing bleat or the defying snort of the living, so well that the males or females are generally attracted to the spot, and fall victims to the manoeuvre. In the same manner, they follow the turkey-trails with the stuffed skin of a dead bird, and mimic the gobble of the cock till others are attracted to the spot and taken. This art of imitating sounds is sometimes successfully exercised when they want to surprise an enemy in war.

A hostile party of Indians will, with surprising secrecy, go within hearing of their enemies' dwellings, and imitate the voice of the animal which happens to be in season at that period of the year; as, for instance, the gobbling of the turkey-cock in the early part of the spring, or the *yeping* or clucking of the hen during the infancy of her young in the summer; the howling of the wolf, or bleating of a buck or buffalo calf. The Indian hunters snatch up their bow or gun, and instead of the expected game find themselves surprized by an enemy. In one of these instances, three young warriors of the Kansas tribe, during their hostility with the Ottowas, were allured into the neighbouring woods by the gobbling of the turkey-cock, when to their misfortune two of them were shot dead, and their scalps taken; the third ran for his life without discharging his piece. He continued the yell of defeat the whole way, gave the alarm to the warriors, who immediately set out in pursuit of their enemies; and followed them into the very neighbourhood of their towns without being able to overtake them. On their return home, however, they fell in with the trail of a hunting party of that tribe, fired on them by surprize, and took each man his scalp. The usual rejoicings of the women and children were indulged on their return, and silent applause of the old men. Shem-ba-gah looked very much pleased that they were successful: they sat under the spreading shade, where the aged men and warriors sat smoking. Shem-ba-gah, the one who ran, went among them: they said not a word to him, but went away as soon as he came near them. The punishment was too great for him to bear; he left them without taking leave or saying a word to any person, and never returned while I remained with that tribe.

As these people depend chiefly on the chase for food, they have hitherto made very little progress in agriculture: but they do grow corn, tobacco, pumkins, &c., and remove weeds, and irrigate their fields in dry seasons. They have made greater advances in manufactures, and very much *excel the Americans of the United States* in the dressing of skins and pre-

preparation of leather. They manufacture bowls, pipes, and pottery, with considerable skill. Their canoes, made of the bark of the birch or cotton-wood tree, are very light, and the Indians sometimes carry them when they travel on land, and use them for shelter against rain. Independently of the huts or cabins appropriate to private families, they erect lodges for public purposes on a much larger scale, octagonal, oblong, or square, and sometimes pyramidal. These lodges are the depositories of all public records and public property, and are never entered by individuals except on public occasions. Even enemies, when they have it completely in their power to enter and destroy them, hold it sacrilegious to disturb their contents. Their list of crimes is short, and their punishments are summary: ingratitude and cowardice involve the offender in loss of character, and are sometimes punished with death; and the relations of one who has been murdered inflict death on the offender without regard to the formalities of trial and condemnation. Stealing and lying also expose the individual, who is detected in either, to be excluded from social intercourse. Adultery and all personal offences are revenged by the injured individual. The Indians begin the year about the vernal equinox, and reckon time from one full moon to another. As the French nominated their months in the revolutionary calendar after the appearances of nature, *Prairial*, *Germinal*, *Nivose*, &c. &c., so do the Indians; who have their planting month, their buffalo month, their snow month, &c., each of which they indicate in their communications by hieroglyphic characters; thus, the planting month is represented by grains of sprouting corn, &c. No people are more enthusiastically attached to their country: to an Indian, says Mr. H., when his country is to be benefited, death has no terrors; self is never taken into the account; and he submits to his fate under the impression that he has done his duty, with a magnanimity not to be appreciated by ordinary minds. They have strong attachments to particular places, and will sometimes go miles out of their way to visit the site of an old encampment, or situation in which they have escaped imminent dangers.

Freely as we have already drawn from Mr. Hunter's pages, we cannot but perceive that we must yet leave our readers ignorant of much that is curious and interesting relative to the Indian character and customs, from the necessity of bringing this article to a close. Two or three chapters on the Indian practice of Surgery and Medicine, and on the *Materia Medica*, shew that the author suffers nothing to escape his attention; and his account of the manner in which they hold their public councils

councils and transact public business, — of their election of chiefs, reception of ambassadors, peace-runners, &c., — is extremely striking, together with their preparations for war and for the termination of hostilities, the disposal of their dead, mournings, burials, &c. All these are curious: but we must refer to the volume, which we believe is in very extensive circulation. We cannot conclude, however, without advert- ing to a chapter which contains some observations pregnant with good sense, on the best means of civilizing the American Indians. It is very natural that this should be an object which Mr. Hunter has near to his heart. At present, the Indians who have had the misfortune to come into contact with the Whites have generally met with the very scum and refuse of the race, the most unprincipled and profligate, smiling swindlers and desperate adventurers, who have introduced among them the *evil spirit*, whiskey or rum, and have done more towards destroying their character than the Missionaries can do towards redeeming it in half a century. Under the influence of intoxication, these poor creatures have bartered away not only their furs and their peltry for a few kegs of spirits, but their very territories, their peace of mind, and their domestic enjoyments; for, during the paroxysm of intoxication, the Indian, his squaw, and their children, present a picture of the interior of the infernal regions. Hitherto, independent of loathsome diseases which they have contracted, they have learnt the worst vices of civilized life, and have sacrificed to obtain them the virtues which they had cultivated in a state of nature. The Missionaries who have gone among them have been any thing but successful. It is a maxim among the Indians never to interrupt a person while he is talking, not even by yawning, or rising from the seat, or by any other indication of uneasiness; and the young Missionaries, observing the attention and patience with which the native politeness of their auditors had taught them to listen, while they were preaching long sermons on original sin, vicarious atonement, and the mysteries of their respective creeds, flattered themselves that they had made converts to Christianity! The Indians, however, Mr. Hunter says, are generally prejudiced against the Missionaries, no matter from what denomination or people they come. When dismissed from their lectures, they converse among themselves, and say, "White men tell Indian be honest: Indian have no prison — Indian have no jail for unfortunate debtors — Indian have no lock on his doors." It should be added, however, that it is not exclusively against the Missionaries that their prejudices, if so they must be termed, are directed, but against all white

white people, particularly those from the United States; from whom experience, not prejudice, has taught them to dread every moral contamination, perfidy, and destruction. Still there is one exception; one religious community which stands like a light-house on some cliff to direct exhausted mariners on a stormy ocean to the harbour of safety and repose: there is one society, pre-eminently distinguished for its charity, well tempered and persevering zeal, and for the practical good sense which it carries into all its projects for the amelioration of mankind; and the character and disposition towards them of this society are so well understood by all the frontier tribes, and by many even remotely situated, that 'if the QUAKERS would undertake to revolutionize the habits and opinions of the Indians, they would have the advantage of at least an entire generation of confidence and good will over any other religious sect; a circumstance that would almost operate as a miracle in arriving at the measure in view.'

'In my tour,' says the author, 'through the territories of the Choctow, Cherokee, and Creek nations, I could not avoid observing the difference which exists between them and some other tribes, with whom I had formerly resided, in respect to their modes of life, and their consequent moral tendency. Some of the Indians, it is true, possessed large herds of cattle, horses, and swine; cultivated cotton, corn, and some other necessities and articles of commerce, and some held a number of slaves; but by far the greater portion of them were badly provided, indolent, intemperate, miserably poor, and taken collectively from their intercourse with the Whites, they had become adepts in all their most flagrant and abominable vices, while they continued strangers, at least in practice, to the greatest portion of their virtues. I do not make these remarks from any prejudiced motives or feelings; they are founded on an impartial observation, and from my knowledge of the Indian character.'

'I am sincerely apprehensive that similar results will follow all similar attempts that may be made to civilize any of the other Indian nations. These fears are strengthened by further observations of my own, and from information which I have received from numerous and highly respectable sources, that the same state of society, somewhat modified by locality, exists among all the tribes bordering on our extensive frontiers. The cause of these unfortunate results or effects, it appears to me, if sought for, cannot be mistaken. The Indians, originally, are accustomed to indulge all their wants, so far as the means are attainable, and seldom restrain themselves, except when old, though repeatedly admonished by experience and suffering. Hence, the want of a proper education seems unquestionably to be the radical cause.'

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The first step, therefore, towards any improvement of the Indian condition and character, must be made by breaking off all intercourse with this class of people; and the use of spirituous liquors must be entirely interdicted. So sensible, indeed, are many of the chiefs themselves of the mischiefs which attend these potations, that they have already exerted all their influence to this effect; and, when that has failed, they have sometimes staved the casks which contained the liquor. Skilful physicians should also be sent to teach them, if possible, how to extirpate those diseases to which they were strangers before they became acquainted with the Whites. Agriculture and the mechanic arts should be imparted to them in the first instance; and the mind of an Indian, like the mind of a child, must be gradually expanded and prepared for the reception of those sublime mysteries of religion which, if presented to it before such preparation and expansion, will either be rejected altogether or will make a very transient and unprofitable impression. Extensive plans may doubtless be devised and carried into effect, which will ultimately produce the civilization of the Indians; and the object is so important that no rational means should be spared for its accomplishment. Mr. Hunter offers his services in the cause, and no one can be better qualified to promote it. 'So far as is consistent with my pursuits,' says he, 'and with the state of my affairs, it will at all times afford me the highest gratification to be instrumental to the education, and consequent preservation of this neglected, persecuted, and much injured portion of the human family.' He will soon, we learn, revisit the great mother of waters, the Mississippi, and will carry with him the best wishes of all who have known him for his personal prosperity, as well as for the success of his favorite project. He has not been an idle spectator of men and manners in Europe, or of the arts, sciences, and literature of polished society.

ART. IV. *Observations on some Points relating to the Anatomy, Physiology, and Pathology of the Nervous System.* By Joseph Swan, Surgeon to the Lincoln County Hospital, &c. 8vo. pp. 98. Boards. Longman and Co. 1822.

THE subject of the nervous system was always a consideration of deep interest with medical men: but, until of late years, its cultivation had been so fertile in the production of idle hypotheses, and so unsuccessful in the discovery of facts, that it had in some degree ceased to engage the attention which all acknowledged that it merited. At present, however, the

the method of observation and experiment has taken the place, in this inquiry, of conjecture and hypothesis; and facts are rapidly accumulating, that promise to furnish materials for an explanation of the phenomena of the nervous system, which, imperfect as it may prove, the most sanguine could not a few years since have anticipated.

As a contribution to this stock of information, we may consider the work of Mr. Swan now before us. It is not, indeed, by any means free from hypothetical reasoning: but we cannot accuse the author of disguising his facts for the purpose of supporting preconceived opinions, or of so obscuring them as in any degree to lessen their value. Yet we are constrained to express our regret that he so speedily sent his papers to the press; since a little longer delay might have enabled him to repeat his dissections in similar cases, to confirm opinions which are now doubtful, and perhaps to reject some which might have been ascertained to be groundless. In his brief prefatory notice, he alleges, as an excuse for his haste in publishing, the anxiety which he feels for the advancement of medical science: but it ought never to be forgotten, by the young and the enthusiastic, that those have most benefited the practical part of the profession who have longest weighed their opinions and supposed discoveries, and have published at the close of life the matured results of their experience. In our time, the writings of Mr. Hey, and of the venerable Heberden (although posthumous), furnish sufficient evidence of the truth of this assertion. Feeling, as we do, a respect for the talents of Mr. Swan, and a sympathy with his laudable aspirations after the celebrity of authorship, we would willingly turn his attention to such models as these, and to the rare productions of men like Mr. John Pearson and Doctor Baillie.

This work is divided into nine chapters, and embraces a great diversity of topics, either immediately belonging to the subject of the nervous system or in some degree connected with it. The facts which the author has stated respecting the distribution of nerves, and their appearance in morbid parts, are farther illustrated by nine plates, which are very creditable to the dissector and to the artists by whom they have been portrayed. In the present day, when books are too often advertized like patent medicines or an exhibition of wild beasts, we observed with surprise that no notice was taken of these plates in the title-page.

It is the object of Mr. Swan to prove that nerves may be traced to a far greater degree of minuteness than has been commonly attained; and he is convinced, by inspection with
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the microscope, that nerves terminate by a kind of membranous mesh-work. The representations given from the horse, however, incline us to think that this is a deceptive appearance, produced by the intermixture of cellular tissue. Mr. Swan says that he has succeeded in tracing nervous filaments to the mesentery, the pleura, and the pericardium, in man; and he has given the representation of a portion of the pericardium of a calf, having a nervous filament distributed to it. The most interesting section of the work, however, refers to the nerves of morbid parts. In a fungous tumour on the leg, which, from the excruciating pain that it produced, rendered amputation necessary, Mr. S. was enabled to trace a multitude of nervous fibrils entering its base. From the representation which is given of this appearance, we are inclined to think that, in such cases, a production of new nerves takes place, as the effect of long-continued irritation; and, howsoever improbable such an opinion may at first sight appear, it is in strict accordance with what we know of the vascular system in such cases. — The knowledge of the state of the nerves in tumours of this description, and in highly irritable ulcers, has induced Mr. Swan to suggest the propriety of removing a portion of the nervous trunk from which filaments are detached to the diseased parts, and he actually performed this operation in one instance: but the result was certainly not such as to encourage a repetition of the practice; for the fits of pain were not wholly prevented, and amputation at length became necessary. In cases where ulcers are the seat of excruciating pain, the free use of caustic or of the cautery is incomparably preferable to the removal of a more distant part of the affected nerve; and amputation still remains as a last resource. The removal of the limb, in the case above mentioned, enabled Mr. S. to ascertain satisfactorily the process set up by nature, for the repair of the injury which had been inflicted in his first operation. The nerve above the point of excision was considerably enlarged; and not fewer than four fibrils appear, from the plate annexed, to have been sent off to join the divided trunk and adjacent nerves.

Injuries of the spine naturally occupy a considerable portion of Mr. Swan's attention, and he has detailed a very interesting case of what we believe to have been an injury of this nature; although, on inspection after death, no marks of former violence or of decided disease could be detected in any part of the spine: nor were any morbid appearances, of a distinct character, discovered in the encephalon. Still we are disposed to think that an alteration in the intimate texture of the substance, either of the spinal cord or of the brain, had
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taken place, which the skill of the anatomist has not hitherto enabled him satisfactorily to display. The case of this patient has given rise to a difference of opinion between the author and Dr. Harrison of London; (*Medical and Physical Journal*, March, 1823;) the latter asserting that, when the patient came under his care, six of the dorsal vertebræ were found to have been forced inwards; and he appeals to the dissection given by Mr. Swan, as a proof of the remarkable success of his practice in reducing the dislocated vertebræ. This reasoning, however, will not be admitted by those who best know the mechanism of the spinal column; and we deem it quite impossible that an injury, such as Dr. Harrison has supposed to have existed in the case in question, could have failed to leave behind it unequivocal marks that it had once been inflicted. It is humiliating to the pride of the medical inquirer to think that accidents like that of the patient in question, which terminate fatally after a long train of suffering, leave behind them no visible trace of injury; while others, which manifest evident displacement of parts, affect neither the life nor the health of the individual. We became lately acquainted with the case of a laborer who fell from a great height, by which one of his legs was severely shattered, and the spine was so injured as to cause a considerable projection of the spinous processes of two of the dorsal vertebræ: notwithstanding which he is now walking about with a wooden leg, enjoying perfect health.

Some remarks are made by Mr. Swan on Dizziness; and one case is detailed in which this distressing symptom was removed by the exhibition of cinchona. The bark, in such cases, no doubt acts by giving tone to the stomach, and thus relieving the sympathetic affection of the encephalon.

The division which Mr. S. has made of Paraplegia is at least inconsiderate. 'There appears to me,' he says, 'to be two sorts of paraplegia. The one (I do not apply this to diseases of the vertebræ) comes on gradually, and is almost always connected with some disease within the cranium; the other comes on suddenly, and, as far as I can judge, arises from a disease within the spinal canal.' The sudden or gradual attack of the disease seems to furnish no adequate criterion of the seat of the evil. In the case of carious vertebræ, or destruction of the intervertebral substance, the loss of power is not usually sudden; nor is there reason to believe that, in instances of primary affections of the spinal marrow, the attack is most commonly of this description. In illustration of his position, Mr. S. has related a case of sudden paraplegia, in which the bowels appear to have been much loaded

loaded and disordered; and he believes that a rapid determination of blood to the spinal cord had taken place. Whether this sudden loss of power arose from a sympathetic affection of the brain, or of the spinal marrow, we feel unable to determine.

The volume before us offers convincing proofs both of industry and ability, and leads us to regret the indiscreet haste with which the author submitted his papers to publication: but we trust that, as so much promise of success has been exhibited, he will be encouraged to prosecute his inquiries on this subject with increasing ardour and exertion.

ART. V. *Account of a Tour in Normandy*; undertaken chiefly for the Purpose of investigating the Architectural Antiquities of the Duchy; with Observations on its History, on the Country, and on its Inhabitants; illustrated with numerous Engravings. By Dawson Turner, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 526. Arch.

ART. VI. *Letters written during a Tour through Normandy, Brittany, and other Parts of France*, in 1818, including local and historical Descriptions; with Remarks on the Manners and Character of the People. By Mrs. Charles Stothard. With numerous Engravings, after Drawings by Charles Stothard, F.S.A. 4to. pp. 322. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co.

AMID the multiplied calls that are made on the labor of reviewers, in an age so prolific in new publications as the present, a postponement of the notice of particular works is, occasionally, unavoidable. In the case of books of temporary interest, such delays are most to be deprecated: but the matter of the volumes before us is fortunately of a less transient character than a reader might at first imagine; for the writers, though altogether unconnected as to their plan of travelling, have, as if by concert, dwelt slightly on the ephemeral topics of fashion or politics, and have directed their attention to the public structures, the historical monuments, and other permanent characteristics of the country.

The author of the publication that ranks first on our list, Mr. Dawson Turner, though not professionally *un homme de lettres*, is well known among our men of science as a learned botanist, and among our antiquaries and artists as a collector of objects calculated to gratify a liberal curiosity. His account of Normandy is the result of three distinct tours, performed in the years 1815, 1818, and 1819, at intervals when his business as a provincial banker admitted of his absence. In the longest of these excursions, Mr. T. was accompanied by his wife and daughter, who lent their aid to a very con-

spicuous feature of the work, viz. the plates; which, to the number of fifty, elucidate the subject-matter of these volumes. We say elucidate only; because, with all deference to the fair artists, we cannot carry our courtesy so far as to pronounce that their skill in engraving is such as to render the plates very ornamental. The objects of these graphic labors are principally architectural; consisting of a church, a tower, a castle, or an abbey: but these grave delineations are mixed, at times, with others of a more enlivening character, such as (vol. i. p. 161.) the flaunting head-dresses of the Norman women; or (vol. ii. p. 216.) the profile of a learned member of a French university.

The longest of Mr. T.'s expeditions took place in 1818; and his route was by Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Evreux, Lisieux, Caen, Bayeux, Falaise, Louviers, and Vernon; — a journey which comprized the chief towns in Upper as well as Lower Normandy. In what manner, it is natural for the reader to inquire, has he filled two handsome octavos, to the exclusion of statistical topics, such as trade, manufactures, and agriculture? Chiefly by descriptions of the existing monuments of antiquity, and by a diligent investigation of the records composed by Norman writers. Thus, in the first volume, Rouen, with its two Cathedrals, its Churches, and its Hospitals, occupies fully a hundred pages; and in vol. ii. a large space is allotted to Caen, which, if it boast not a cathedral, is rich in churches and other architectural remains.

Rouen contains nearly 90,000 inhabitants, and takes the lead among the trading and manufacturing towns in the north of France. Being, however, an old city, it differs entirely in its aspect from Manchester, Glasgow, and other trading towns of this country; the streets being narrow, and the buildings remarkably dissimilar both in size and appearance.

‘Rouen,’ says Mr. T., ‘is now unfortified; its walls and its castles are level with the ground. But, if I may borrow the pun of which old Peter Heylin is guilty, when describing Paris, Rouen is still a strong city, “for it takes you by the nose.” The site is extreme; villainous smells overcome you in every quarter. The streets are gloomy, narrow, and crooked, and the houses at once mean and lofty. Even on the quay, where all the activity of commerce is visible, and where the outward signs of opulence might be expected, there is nothing to fulfil the expectation. Here is width and space, but no *trottoir*; and the buildings are as incongruous as can well be imagined, whether as to height, colour, projection, or material. Most of them, and indeed most in the city, are merely of lath and plaster, the timbers uncovered and painted red or black, the plaster frequently coated with small grey slates, laid one over another, like the weather-tiles in Sussex.

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Their general form is very lofty, and very narrow, which adds to the singularity of their appearance; but mixed with these are others of white brick or stone, and really handsome, or, it might be said, elegant. The contrast, however, which they form only makes their neighbours look the more shabby, while they themselves derive from the association an air of meanness.' (Vol. I. p. 47.)

The only mercantile structures of importance in Rouen are the different *Halles*, or open buildings appropriated to the resort of traders. The *Halle* for the sale of wool is 200 feet in length, and that of the drapers is of equal dimensions; while *la Bourse*, or Merchants' Exchange, is of the extent of 270 feet, and the Corn Hall not less than 300. These are all built round a large square; the centre of which, on market-days, exhibits a contrast not unusual in France, being filled by retailers of pottery, old clothes, and other petty traffickers. Nothing, however, can form a stronger contrast to the closeness and meanness of the town than the beauty of its environs.

'I describe,' says the author, 'with pleasure, my recollections of the glorious prospect over which the eye ranges from the hill of St. Catherine. The Seine, broad, winding, and full of islands, is the principal feature of the landscape. This river is distinguished by its sinuosity, and the number of islets which it embraces; and it retains this character even to Paris. Its smooth tranquillity well contrasts with the life that is imparted to the scene by the shipping and the bustle of the quays. The city itself, with its verdant walks, its spacious manufactories, its strange and picturesque buildings, and the numerous spires and towers of its churches, many of them in ruins, but not the less interesting on account of their decay, presents a foreground diversified with endless variety of form and colour. The bridge of boats seems immediately at our feet; the middle distance is composed of a plain, chiefly consisting of the richest meadows, interspersed copiously with country seats and villages, embosomed in wood; and the horizon melts into an undulating line of remote hills.' (Page 120.)

The Bridges of Rouen. — Though the Seine here is not much more than half the width of the Thames at London, the construction of a stone bridge was a matter of considerable difficulty, on account of the depth and occasional rapidity of the stream. Such a structure, however, was erected, on a small scale, about the year 1167, half a century before the building of London-bridge: but it bore marks of the ignorance of the age, and seems to have been both narrow and slight; since, after its erection, heavy goods were conveyed across the river by boats. In the course of four centuries, this bridge ceased to be passable, and was replaced in 1626

by the bridge of boats so much vaunted on account of its rising and falling with the tide, and of the ease with which its component parts are detached, when the approach of a flood requires that the course of the river should be left free. This bridge consists of nineteen large barges, moored side by side, with their bows to the stream: they are of such strength and buoyancy as to bear a pavement, and to admit the passage of the heaviest waggons: but the whole structure is inelegant and cumbrous. — Rouen, being cordially attached to the revolutionary cause, was in high favour with Bonaparte; in whose reign a stone-bridge was begun at a spot where the intervention of an island, while it expands the breadth of the river, tends to lessen materially the strength of the current. This bridge is now in progress: but, if it advances as slowly as at and since the time of Mr. Turner's visit, it will evidently require many years for its completion.

Caen, the capital of Lower or Western Normandy, is a place altogether different from Rouen, having streets of considerable width, and being built throughout of stone, which the neighbouring quarries supply in abundance. It is adapted less for trade than for education; for the residence of country gentry, or as they are styled in French, *noblesse*, for the transaction of law-business; and, since the late peace, for the residence of English annuitants. These circumstances have all conduced to the formation of a good society, and have led to an opinion among the inhabitants that, in this important point, their city is equal to any town in France, except the metropolis. Not staying to examine whether this estimate be not somewhat highly colored, we find (vol. ii. p. 162.) that Mr. T. had not long been within the walls of Caen without exclaiming "*Sis mea, utinam, sedes senectæ!*"; a preference, however, which on his part was, in some degree, prompted by the historical recollections excited by the various specimens of antient architecture which happily remain at Caen in good preservation. Of these the most prominent are the two abbeys called *Abbaye aux Hommes* and *Abbaye aux Dames*, founded respectively by William the Conqueror and his queen Matilda, shortly before the invasion of England. Of the extent of Caen at this early period, we have no distinct account: but it appears to have been not merely a place of security for the deposit of property within the circuit of its castle; but a town of some traffic, with a market-place, a quay, and a custom-house; appendages which, simple as they now appear, were in those days possessed by very few towns on either side of the Channel. The town-
walls

walls appear to have received their chief extension somewhat before the middle of the 14th century; a time when the warlike character of our Edward III., and his avowed claim to the crown of France, spread alarm throughout that kingdom. Edward landed in 1346 in the west of Normandy, and, after having occupied successively Valognes, Coutances, St. Lo, and other small towns, presented himself before Caen, which, confiding in its walls and numerous population, ventured to offer resistance to the invader. Three days were passed in movements and attacks; after which the citizens, unable to withstand so formidable an antagonist, consented to give up the town, with all its property, public and private, on an assurance of safety to their lives. Edward replenished his stores by the supplies which the city afforded, and, marching eastward in the direction of Picardy, retired before the host now collected against him by the King of France; until, in the course of his march, he found at Cressy a position in which the efforts of a skilful general and a disciplined army were crowned with signal success over his numerous but precipitate assailants.

After this brilliant campaign, Calais was besieged and taken by Edward; and this being considered both by him and his successors as the most convenient inlet to the territory of France; Caen, Rouen, and the other towns described by Mr. Turner, were left in quiet possession of our rivals, during the period of seventy years. In 1415, however, Normandy was again roused to arms by a warrior equal to Edward; we mean our Henry V., who in that year landed with an army near the mouth of the Seine, took Harfleur, advanced to Caen, and, in the course of a few campaigns, completed the conquest of Normandy. The talents of Henry, far superior to those of the French monarch, insured the tranquil submission of this valuable province during his life: at his death our tenure of it became more doubtful: but it was maintained amid the varied fortunes of the war in the reign of Henry VI., until 1450, being in all somewhat more than thirty years. In that interval, several of the towns described by Mr. Turner received, both in their architectural structures and their public institutions, (such as the University of Caen,) much useful aid at the hands of our government; who were solicitous to gain the attachment of the inhabitants, and to detach the Normans from the rest of the French. Their efforts, however, proved ineffectual: for the open frontier of Normandy, and the intercourse naturally attendant on identity of language, kept up a close political connection between the

inhabitants of the coast and the interior, and eventually obliged our troops to evacuate this long-contested province.

Since the relinquishment of Normandy by our countrymen, it has been exempt from invasion, and has known no other obstacles to its internal tranquillity than such as have arisen from intestine divisions; — we allude to the long contest between the Catholics and the Protestants in the 16th century, and to the comparatively short but keen struggle between the royalists and the revolutionists thirty years ago. With the exception of these intervals, the arts of peace have been cultivated with little interruption: a circumstance that leads us to bestow a few sentences on a subject on which Mr. T. has hardly touched; — the statistics of the country; the climate; the soil; and the progress of its productive industry. — Normandy, equal in extent to eight or nine of our counties, is very similar to the south of England in territorial aspect, its surface usually being gently undulated, its rivers tranquil in their course, and its tracts of pasture extensive. Its general products, also, resemble not those of the interior of France but of our western counties; its fruits being not the vine but the pear and the apple, and its corn not maize but wheat, barley, oats, and rape-seed. Its agriculture, though less backward than in most parts of France, is still considerably behind that of England and Scotland; the implements in common use, such as the plough and the harrow, being deficient in their due proportion of iron: while threshing-machines are unknown, and much that is here done by machinery is there performed by manual labor. The climate, on the other hand, is a degree warmer than the temperature of England; as the corn and fruit of Normandy are found, on a proper plan of culture, to attain maturity a fortnight or three weeks earlier than in our southern counties.

If we inquire what has been the *ratio* of the progress of this fine province in productive industry, we shall find that it has been considerable during the last century, yet inferior to that of England; for, if we take population as the basis of our estimate, it will appear that, while in this country we now count 200 inhabitants for 100 a century ago, the increase on the opposite shore has not exceeded the proportion of 140 to 100. We must add, however, another distinction of no slight importance: viz. that in Normandy the increase has taken place as much in rural districts as in towns, while in England the increase is chiefly in town-population; a class much more efficient in the dispatch of business, and more productive of national revenue, than their brethren in the country.

Not being able to follow Mr. T. to Falaise, Louviers, and other small towns which formed the concluding part of his journey, we shall here close our notice of his book with a few remarks on its merits as a composition. Mr. Turner is a sprightly writer, and, without professing to be particularly skilled either in the architecture of our ancestors or in antiquities generally, is possessed of a stock of historical knowledge, and of an acquaintance with antient buildings in England, that are sufficient to give both clearness and interest to his report of the monuments of Normandy. His reading has evidently been extensive, and his volumes indicate a familiarity with topics of a very varied character, — classics, modern history, botany, &c. If with these different recommendations, the publication should fail to obtain extensive circulation, the cause is to be sought in the limited interest of the subjects discussed. On matters of general attraction, such as the state of political feeling, or of national manners in France, we meet with very few observations; and we do not receive much information of a statistical nature, even in the case of the principal towns. With regard to Rouen, for instance, after having allotted nearly a hundred pages to the description of architectural monuments, Mr. T. merely adverts to the history of the city, and dismisses it in a few paragraphs, without any attempt to ascertain the progressive extension of its trade or population. In fact, the bareness of these volumes respecting commercial intelligence, when considered in connection with the occupation of the author, affords a striking example of the preference which persons are apt to give to researches distinct from their professional pursuits. Mr. T.'s remarks are therefore to be viewed as confined to a particular field, the description of historical monuments, and in this limited view they possess considerable merit; evincing an attentive contemplation of objects by the eye, and a diligent research into the writers of Norman history. As to the merit of his book in point of composition, the style and arrangement will be found occasionally inaccurate, but never prolix or tedious.

We must now attend to the second work on our table, viz. the Letters of Mrs. Stothard. Among the artists of the age we have long been familiar with the name of Stothard, and particularly with that of Mr. C. A. Stothard, the husband and travelling companion of the writer of the present volume; whose premature death both she and the public have since been called to lament. His talents as a draughtsman and his knowledge of antient monuments being duly appreciated by

our Society of Antiquaries, he twice visited Normandy under their auspices, for the purpose of delineating remarkable relics, particularly the tapestry of Bayeux; and it was the second of these excursions that gave occasion to the Letters now before us.

Mrs. Stothard crossed the Channel from Brighton to Dieppe, and describes in striking terms her surprise at being transported in a single night to what may in several respects be termed a new world. Indeed, the height of the houses, the variety in the dress of the people, the masculine activity of the women, and the sound of an unusual language, are all calculated to fix the attention of the traveller. Dieppe, though one of the best built places in the north of France, appeared to Mrs. S., as it does to the majority of English visitors, inferior in neatness and comfort to most of the towns on our side of the Channel: the patched clothes and the scanty furniture of the lower orders convey an impression of poverty, of which we can form no idea from the state of our own laboring classes; and, in the case of the women, the weather-beaten features of the majority bear strong evidence of exposure to the sun. This is, however, by no means to be regarded as a confirmation of the vulgar notion of the personal meagreness of the French; since in Normandy, Picardy, and the northern provinces generally, the proportion of stout fresh-coloured people of either sex is equal or nearly equal to that of our own country.

On proceeding into the interior, the travellers took the route of Rouen, St. Germain, Paris, and Versailles; which are all too well known to English readers to justify extracts from a new book of travels, however sprightly or amusing. We shall accordingly begin our peregrination with Mrs. S. on her leaving the French capital, and proceed westward into Normandy; where, passing through Evreux and Caen, she took up her residence at Bayeux, a town of no great size, but of considerable interest to the antiquary, both as the seat of a cathedral and as having been a place of note in the days of William the Conqueror.

The Bayeux Tapestry. — This very singular relic engaged the attention of Mr. Stothard during several months. It consists, in the first place, of long pieces of linen cloth, all joined together in succession; and covered with figures of arms, warriors, vessels, &c. in illustration of the Conquest of England in 1066. These figures are all made by needle-work; that is, they are stitched into the canvass by worsted threads of different colors, chiefly red, blue, and yellow. The width of the canvas is only twenty inches throughout, but

but its length is not less than 227 feet. The needle-work, partaking of the rudeness of the time, may be compared to what is commonly seen on a girl's sampler; but the design evinces the application of a mature judgment, and a scrupulous attention to the habits of the age in the clothes, the armour, and the general equipment. Of the historical information conveyed by it, we shall give the substance.

The workmanship begins with the latter years of the reign of Edward the Confessor, and represents that venerable monarch sitting on his throne. It next shews the journey of Harold to the sea-side, his embarkation for Normandy, and his disembarkation and arrest by order of Guy, Earl of Ponthieu. Next are seen successively the arrival of messengers from William of Normandy to Earl Guy, the release of Harold, and his reception at the court of William. War being at that time carried on between William and Conan, Earl of Brittany, Harold was intrusted with the command of part of the troops; and he is exhibited as passing, with a body of Normans, the river Conesnon, arriving at Dol, and taking the small town of Dinant. William rewards the services of Harold by a suit of armour, after which they return to Bayeux; where Harold is represented as taking a formal oath, the nature of which could not, of course, be explained in such a work, but which is generally believed to have been an acknowledgement of the right of William to succeed to the English crown, and a vow on the part of Harold to support that right.

Harold now returns to England, and renders an account of his mission to Edward; who is represented, some time afterward, as on his death-bed. Then Harold, forgetful of his vow, is exhibited as receiving the crown at the head of his adherents; and soon afterward is seen a comet, an omen of the bloodshed that is to follow this unhappy dereliction of his pledge. A vessel crossing the Channel brings the unwelcome intelligence to William, who immediately orders the construction of a fleet for the invasion of England. After this are represented successively the passage of the Normans, their disembarkation, their march to Hastings, their encampment at that place, and the arrival of intelligence stating the approach of Harold with his army. William is then exhibited addressing his soldiers; the battle begins; the two brothers of Harold fall: but the Saxons, formed on a rising ground, stand firm, and repel every attack. A report prevailed among the Normans that William had been killed, but he is seen rushing among his flying troops, and taking off his helmet to assure them of his safety. The fugitives are rallied:

rallied: but the Saxons remaining unbroken, William orders a feigned retreat; on which his opponents quit their vantage-ground, and when ardent in pursuit are attacked in flank by a party of Normans. Still the victory is undecided; the Normans having by no means recovered the confusion attendant on their hazardous manœuvre, when Harold receives a fatal arrow in his eye, and his adherents, fighting without concert, are at last overthrown. With this event the delineation finishes.

Such is the substance of the information contained in this very remarkable historical record. Our statement, brief as it is, contains enough to prove its extraordinary interest, and to justify the solicitude of the Society of Antiquaries to render it in a manner accessible to us in London, by engaging Mr. Stothard to prepare a *fac-simile* of the whole: — a task for which he was alike fitted by his ability as a draughtsman and his knowledge of the history of the middle ages.

The date of the execution of this very interesting relic has been much discussed, particularly since the return of peace has opened Normandy to the investigations of our countrymen. The direction of the work belonged, doubtless, to a female; and all tradition agrees in giving it to a princess of the name of Matilda: but the questionable point is whether this lady was Matilda the wife of the Conqueror, or the Empress Matilda, sovereign of that duchy a century later! The arguments on both sides are recapitulated by Mr. Dawson Turner (vol. ii. p. 236.), who concludes by attributing it to the wife of the Conqueror. To this opinion we incline for various reasons; — of which the principal are,

1. That the manners and customs of the age of William are faithfully preserved; there being no trace of the changes that took place in the succeeding century.

2. That the tapestry represents the history less of the Conquest in its detail than of the claims of William to the crown, and of the breach of faith on the part of Harold: it is in fact a vindication of the conduct of William in invading England.

3. That no one was so likely to undertake this task as the female most nearly connected with the principal personage concerned.

After having examined the other objects of curiosity at Bayeux, which are considerable, from its being both a place of antiquity and the see of a bishop, Mr. and Mrs. S. proceeded westward; passing through a country well known to travellers in Normandy, viz. the extensive forest of Cerisy, and the beautifully situated towns of St. Lo, Coutances, and

Avranches,

Avranches, which stand in what may be termed the Devonshire of France. A farther progress brought them to Rennes, the capital of Britany, a city of 30,000 inhabitants, which exhibits a singular contrast of old and new streets; a part of the town being of wood, while another part, having been rebuilt after a great fire about a century ago, contains both wide streets and good houses. The inhabitants, like the majority of the Bretons, have unfortunately had a dislike to our countrymen ever since the melancholy affair of Quiberon, in which they consider our government to have intentionally sacrificed the French emigrants: but a still more serious inconvenience to travellers arises from the miserable filth and poverty of the smaller towns and villages, of the extent of which it is impossible to form an idea without having visited this province, or being familiarly acquainted with the most wretched part of Ireland. No natural boundary, whether of mountain or river, divides Britany from Normandy; yet, after having crossed an ideal line, the progress of a few miles brings the traveller into an altogether different scene.

The Bretons, according to Mrs. S., live in huts, generally built of mud; and, in many cases, men, pigs, and children, all herd together. As to clothes, the men in some parts wear a covering of goat-skin with the fur-part outside: the head is covered by a broad flapped straw or beaver hat, while their long hair hangs dishevelled about their shoulders; and on their feet they wear *sabots* or wooden shoes, with straw thrust into them: so that altogether they remind the traveller of the aspect of savage life. At the village-inns, the floor of the kitchen is the bare earth, with a pool in the middle to receive foul water, or for the paddling of ducks. On one side there is probably a hen-roost, and near it a bed with curtains in rags, festooned by cobwebs. In the windows, the panes of glass are generally broken, and rags are stuffed into the vacancies. In the dining-room, the chairs usually want a leg or part of the back, or at best are covered with dust: for to sweep a room is as unusual in Britany as for the servants to wash their face or hands; and the unavoidable consequence is a superabundance of fleas and other vermin.

The food of the Breton peasantry consists partly of chestnuts, there being many large forests of that tree: the fruit of which is collected in sacks, piled up in the cabins, and boiled in milk. In the wilder parts of the country, the inhabitants live partly on acorns; and thus this stationary race grows on from day to day, and from year to year, in the same supine idleness and dirt. If a Breton be questioned why, when there are so many groves of apple-trees, he does not make cyder,

(for

(for the greater quantity is imported from Normandy,) he will say that his father never did so; — and, if asked why he does not grow more corn, he answers, “I have gathered chest-nuts from my boyhood.”

Amid these scenes of filth and poverty, the chief relief to the eye of the traveller is in the occasional beauty of the country. Nothing in this respect can exceed the environs of the petty towns of Josselin and Hennebont, or those of Vannes, which is a place of greater size, and the chief town of the department of the Morbihan. To an English traveller, these places possess a farther interest from their having been the scene of events more or less connected with English history, in the ages when our kings contended so vigorously for the re-conquest of Normandy, and even aspired to the throne of France. Into the relation of these exploits, Mrs. Stothard enters with considerable minuteness; and her details, besides their interest in a general sense, have perhaps the advantage of being new to the majority of her readers. Such, for example, is the account of the relief of the town of Hennebont and its intrepid Countess, by an English squadron in 1342; of the conflict in 1350, between thirty English and thirty Breton knights, on a heath half-way between Ploermel and Josselin, in which our countrymen were vanquished; and of the more important engagement of Auray, in 1364, in which they took an ample revenge, and fixed in the government of Brittany the son-in-law of our Edward III.

Carnac, in the south of Brittany, is a remarkable Celtic monument, or rather collection of monuments, in the style of Stonehenge, and, if ruder than that structure, both in its foundation and present state, it is far more extensive. The stones, or rather blocks of rock, bear no mark of workmanship, each block being merely set on end in the earth, without any superstructure or addition whatever. They are of great thickness: — in height, they vary from ten to fifteen feet; — and they extend in rows of not less than half a mile in length, so that the number of blocks in a row is fully 300, and the total number is said to amount to 4000! The materials for this singular assemblage were at hand, the ground being full of rock for miles around: but the difficulty must have consisted in removing these ponderous blocks in an age so deficient in the use of machinery. What could have been the motive or purpose of so vast a monument? Was it a commemoration of a great battle; or a collection, made at various epochs, to mark a public burying-ground? The word *carnac* signifies, in the Breton language, a “field of flesh:” but there is no tradition of the erection of these masses; and,

and, in truth, the verbal accounts given by the Bretons are very seldom to be trusted. The traveller does not find here, as in Wales, a disposition to dwell on early history, on tradition, or on legendary tales: the natives seem as inferior to the poorest Welsh in education as in clothing, lodging, and furniture; in every thing, in short, except the fertility of their territory.

Mr. and Mrs. S. now held on their course eastward, and exchanged the wilds of Britany for the banks of the Loire. Nantes, a large and well-situated city, presented to them many pleasant objects in its wide streets, its handsome exchange, its feudal castle, and the still extensive remains of its antient walls: it contains also a remarkable cathedral, a theatre, and a museum. Of the town of Angers, situated higher up the Loire, or rather on the banks of the Mayenne, Mrs. S. speaks with more favor than the majority of travellers; who, while they admit the beauty of the river, the castle, and the adjacent country, describe the town as gloomy and ill built. With regard to the next stage in her tour, Saumur, there prevails no difference of opinion, as far at least as the beauty of the scenery is concerned. At some distance from this town stands the extensive and once richly endowed abbey of Fontevraud, founded in the age of the Crusades, and adopted as the burying-place of several of our sovereigns of the Norman race; particularly Henry II., his queen Eleanor, Richard I., and Isabella, the wife of King John.

The remainder of the journey being by Tours, Orleans, Amiens, and other places familiar to our readers, we shall cease to accompany our fair traveller, and proceed to make a few remarks on the general merits of her book; remarks which will not, we fear, bear the stamp of all the courtesy that may be expected by a lady. Like the majority of English travellers, Mrs. S. sets her foot in France with a theory completely formed (p. 8.) with regard to the national character, and has the ingenuity to find a confirmation of it before she proceeds many leagues into the interior. We here allude to expressions used by the French with whom she conversed (p. 17.), and which seem to us to have been meant in a sense very different from that in which she received them: while other assertions (as in p. 271.) were doubtless hazarded as an experiment on the credulity of a foreigner. Who, among such of our countrywomen as have lived in France, will believe that an observant traveller could have written (p. 77.) that ‘young ladies are brought up with less reserve in that country than in England, and that they mix in general in society at a much earlier age?’ This assertion is, in point of accuracy,

racy, much on a par with the remark (p. 143.) that ‘twelve o’clock is the usual time of dining in Normandy;’ or the more important allegation (p. 68.) that Frenchmen are so indifferent to party, that ‘they would shout for a Bourbon to-day and a Buonaparte to-morrow.’ Those who have lived in France, since the peace, have had ample occasion to observe that in no part of Europe is the line of political opposition more decidedly marked; and that, during the lifetime of the present generation, there is not the slightest prospect of a change. We observe, also, that in point of language Mrs. S. lays herself equally open to reprehension; mistaking, in her French quotations, the genders of even familiar words, such as (p. 271.) *le marié* for *le mari*; *bas Bretagne* for *basse Bretagne*; and falling (p. 218.) into a misnomer not a little singular on the part of an investigator of history, we mean that of calling the combat of the Thirty (*combat des Trente*) the ‘battle of Trant.’ To these animadversions we must add, that a general want of method prevails in the book, which can boast neither index nor table of contents. On the other hand, Mrs. S. is sprightly and amusing beyond most writers of travels; to a degree, in short, that might have disarmed our strictures of a portion of their severity, were it not incumbent on the guardians of the press to interpose with somewhat of a decisive tone, in checking the circulation of mistaken notions regarding such important points as the state of morals and politics on the opposite shore of the Channel.

We conclude with a few sentences about an accompaniment of a different kind — the plates; and here we have pleasure in bearing a favorable testimony both as to accuracy and elegance of execution. To a person who has visited Normandy, nothing can be more striking than the resemblance, between these engravings and the looks of the individuals, male and female, who figure in the streets of a French town; or the aspect of the antiquated dwellings that are still so frequent in that country. The drawings, from which these plates are engraved, were the work of Mrs. Stothard’s lamented husband. The melancholy event of his death took place when he was engaged in preparing a farther proof of his professional eminence; having been caused by a fall from a ladder on which he stood while making a sketch of a Gothic window in a church in one of our western counties. Some particulars of his life, with specimens of his correspondence, since published by his widow, will call for our attention at a future opportunity.

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ART. VII. *Remarks on the Country extending from Cape Palmas to the River Congo*, including Observations on the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants. With an Appendix containing an Account of the European Trade with the West Coast of Africa. By Captain John Adams. Crown 8vo. pp. 270. 7s. 6d. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

Africa has lately been the cause of many laborious and unfortunate attempts to explore those parts of it which have hitherto been unknown to us, and the subject of many large and costly narratives of those expeditions. In the present unostentatious volume, however, we have the simple narrative of a mercantile seaman, who has considerably enlarged the sphere of our knowledge of the western shores of that region; which have not, we believe, been visited by any European for the specific purpose of making discoveries. The country between Cape Palmas and the river Congo, consequently, is but little known, although it presents a wide and fruitful field for investigation. The line of coast between these points, comprehends an extent of five hundred leagues; and one place, Maleinba, within that extent, Captain Adams strenuously recommends as an eligible situation for planting a settlement of the Negroes captured in contraband slave-ships. The insalubrity of Sierra Leone, which the evil genius of the African Institution selected for that purpose, is now become proverbial: in fact, the climate is fatal, and the town little better than a large grave. To point out a better place for a similar establishment, therefore, is the most effectual way of contributing to the benevolent purposes for which that colony was originally formed, and which at present are in great danger of being frustrated.

Cape Palmas lies in latitude $4^{\circ} 30'$ north, and longitude $7^{\circ} 30'$ west of Greenwich; and small vessels may anchor near the shore, in the inside of a reef. The natives are poor, and inoffensive. At another cape, to the eastward, called Cape Lahoo, is a town on a narrow peninsula of sand, consisting of about 150 houses, where the Dutch once carried on a considerable trade in slaves and ivory. Captain Adams went on shore to visit it.

'On making my intention known,' he says, 'to the natives, they seemed much gratified, and placed me in one of their best canoes for that purpose; from which we landed, without being much wet, the surf on the shore being moderate. I was taken to the chief's house, who treated me with much attention, kindness, and hospitality: but the beautiful tropical picture which the river at this time presented would have amply repaid me for my trouble, if I had had no other cause for being pleased with my journey.'

journey. This little river, after bending its course from the north to the back of the town, runs to the eastward a few hundred yards parallel to the sea-shore, and then joins the sea. Its mouth is narrow, and choked with hard sand, on which the sea breaks with great violence, so as to render it very dangerous either for boats or canoes to approach its entrance. It was now the dry season, its stream almost pellucid, and its surface so tranquil, that the graceful palms which adorn its banks were reflected from its surface as from a mirror; and a few canoes, in which people were employed fishing, gave animation to the scene. The town formed the foreground, and a cluster of large ceiba and other trees, the screen to this interesting tropical picture. A boundless expanse of ocean placed within a few hundred yards of it, on which I had toiled many years, and a foaming surf rolling in upon the shore, formed a striking contrast to the tranquillity and beauty of the landscape spread out before me, which gave it charms that, in my eyes, it might not otherwise have had.

‘Men, women, and children, accompanied me when I went to view the entrance of the river; and I was much surprised to see many of the females approaching the adult age in a state of nudity, as compared with those of their own sex and age living on the Gold Coast, and without seeming at all conscious of the indecency of their appearance.’

There are many insignificant places on the Gold Coast, of no value either in a military or a commercial point of view: but Annamaboo, ten miles east of Cape Coast, is the great mart where the slave-trade has been long carried on; and here the fortifications are good, and the population amounts to 3000 or 4000 inhabitants. Captain Adams mentions a singular custom on the Gold Coast among a number of men called gold-takers, who claim a sort of hereditary right to the pre-emption of gold on board every trading vessel that arrives there.

‘This right is founded on the long established custom, of the traders who first visit a vessel becoming the gold-takers for that vessel, whether the number be two, three, or six; except in the case of the captain having before traded at Annamaboo, either as cabin-boy or captain, when the gold-takers of the ship in which he before sailed become the privileged persons, and claim the distinction and emoluments as gold-takers, on the present, as well as on all future voyages he may have occasion to make on the Gold Coast. The duties of their office are to settle all disputes arising in the course of trade between the natives and the captains; and they are also responsible for the quality of the gold received in barter, which is weighed and examined minutely by persons deputed by them, and who constantly reside on board the vessels for that express purpose. The emoluments arising to them for these services consist of a quantity of merchandise, of the value of 5*l.*, denominated their sea-clothes, which is given to them immediately

mediately on the vessel's arrival; and when her lading is completed, they are paid one acky of gold for each slave received on board. Their deputies also receive monthly pay and subsistence whilst officiating. Some of these gold-takers are sagacious fellows, and keen observers, who soon find out the weak side of a man, and treat him accordingly.'

Some curious details follow respecting the Fantee nation, who immolate human victims to their savage superstition.

Captain Agry, a native of Cape Coast, and a man of wealth and consequence died. He had long lingered under the malady which finally terminated his existence, and as it is the practice of the Fantees to execute the crabba, and cransa, or the youngest wife, where marriage has not been consummated, and the boy who carries the smoking apparatus belonging to a great man, the moment the breath leaves his body, the progress of his disease was watched with the utmost anxiety, by Mr. Field, the governor of the castle, who was determined to rescue from a premature death the young and destined victims. The surgeon of the castle, who had access to the dying chief, gave notice to the governor of his approaching dissolution, and the children were by stratagem brought within the walls of the castle, before the fatal event arrived that would have sealed their doom, and sent them to an untimely grave. The girl was about eleven years of age, and the boy nine or ten. The friends and townsmen of the deceased used every entreaty, and much art to obtain possession of them from the governor, and even descended to menaces, but without effect. Agry was, therefore, interred without the usual and shocking sacrifice having been performed at his demise, or funeral; and his relations, a few months afterwards, accepted from the governor a quantity of brandy and gunpowder, to be expended over his grave, as an equivalent for the lives of the two children, who, at the expiration of twelve months, were permitted to join the family of the deceased, and lived to express their gratitude to their protector wherever they saw him, for having rescued them from a dreadful and premature death.'

Grewhe, which may be called the sea-port of Dahomy, is situated in lat. 6° 17' north, long. 3° 6' east of Greenwich, and is a populous town: at which three forts have been erected by the English, French, and Portuguese. The country surrounding Grewhe is fertile, and level, having large savannahs covered with high grass. North of the town the lands produce pease, calavancies, maize, and yams. Wydah is the capital of Dahomy, but the King's residence is at Abomey, about 90 miles from Grewhe. The leopard and the hyæna are often troublesome visitors to the town: but the latter animal is caught in traps similar to rat-traps with falling doors. Hyænas are never seen during daylight. In the centre of the town is a large tree like a mulberry-tree, on the branches

of which hang, suspended by their claws, thousands of very large bats, with their heads downwards, during the day. Those that were shot by Captain Adams measured between their wings two feet; their heads resembled those of horses: but the eyes, teeth, and whiskers, were like those of immense rats.

Governor Dalzel, whose history of Dahomy is minute, and we believe accurate, has not noticed a remarkable custom which exists there, of admitting females into the order of priesthood: but the ceremony practised on this occasion is thus described by Captain Adams:

‘ A young female, generally the daughter of a fetiche man or priest, is selected for the purpose, who undergoes a probationary penance that continues six months, previous to her admission into holy orders. During this period, she is initiated by the priests into all the mysteries and chicanery of the religion of their forefathers, which consisted in the worship of the black and white snake, and in the mummerly of giving sanctity to bones, rags, &c.

‘ When she appears in public during the period of her probation, her manner is grave and solemn; her skin is painted with a kind of white clay; rows of shells, of various forms and sizes, are hung upon her neck, arms, and ancles; and her loins are girt with long grass, which reaches to her knees. A dwelling is provided for her, in which she eats and sleeps alone, and into which none are admitted but fetiche men and women.

‘ At the expiration of the six months a large assemblage of men, women, and children, accompanied by the various orders of priesthood, and the musicians belonging to the town, takes place on an open space of ground, to assist at, and also to witness, the last grand ceremony.

‘ Soon after assembling, the women form a circle by joining hands, among whom are the companions of the novitiate's youth, and also her relations, who commence dancing circularly, reversing the movements alternately, after making one complete circle. The dancing is accompanied by the most barbarous and horrid din imaginable, caused by the musicians beating on drums, tom-toms, gongs, and blowing horns manufactured out of elephant's teeth and reeds; to which are added the most strange and uncouth grimaces and contortions of the faces and bodies of the priests, so that a spectator might easily imagine them to be a number of maniacs, who had been turned loose to give effect to the ceremony: and were it not for the presence of the little children, who look on with fear and astonishment depicted in their countenances, would be no bad representation of Pandemonium.

‘ The novitiate, soon after dancing commences, is brought out, by apparent force, from a little hut which had concealed her from the spectators, and placed in the centre of the circle formed by the dancing females, from whom she endeavours to escape to the hut whence she had been brought, and this she is allowed to accomplish.

plish. This ceremony is repeated three times; an incantation is then delivered by the chief priest, and the farce ends.

One of the conditions by which a female is admitted into the order of priesthood is that of leading a life of celibacy, and renouncing the pleasures of the world; and but few are admitted to enter it at all; for during a residence of many months at Grewhe, one ceremony only of this kind was performed, at which I was present.

There is a striking similarity in the conditions imposed on these poor deluded African women who are admitted into the priesthood, and many of those nuns, who, in Catholic Europe, are forced to take the veil; only the former are instruments in the hands of fraud and oppression; while the others are too often the victims of domestic tyranny and ambition. But the lot of the savage African is far superior to that of the civilized European. For the former, notwithstanding the restraints imposed on her, can enjoy the sweets of personal liberty, and has some scope for the play of her natural affections; whereas the latter is shut within the gloomy walls of a prison, where her short life is passed away in vain regret, and in the society of immolated beings, who are as melancholy and desponding as herself.

Hio is a district of great extent, inhabited by a warlike people. The capital, according to the natives, is about 180 miles N.N.E. from Ardrah, the most populous town of any that the author visited (Benin excepted) in Africa, and containing nearly 10,000 inhabitants. The neighbouring country is champaign, and finely wooded; the soil, sandy and superficial; and the sub-stratum, red loam or marl. There are many Mussulmans in Ardrah. Cotton and iron are manufactured by the people here; and they make cloths of cotton and of grass, into which they weave threads of red India taffety. Indigo is indigenous to the soil, and in the preparation of it they evince much practical knowledge. Soap is made of wood-ashes and palm-oil. — Among the Ardrahs, who are well-looking, muscular, and very black, the tattoo consists of three knobs of skin raised horizontally on each temple. Their government is republican. The country about Ardrah produces the sugar-cane, indigo, cotton, pine-apples, guavas, and other fruits belonging to the tropics. The market abounds with provisions, poultry, and fruit, and is occupied by numerous traders, who have stalls covered with mats, on which they expose to sale European and Indian manufactures, tobacco from the Brazils, iron, coral, &c. &c. — Benin is a country of considerable magnitude, lying north and west of the river Formosa, from which a wide creek branches to a town called Gatto; and vessels of 60 tons may navigate this creek to within four or five miles of the town. The intermediate

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region

region is a morass covered with an impenetrable forest. Captain Adams, in compliance with the rigid practice obliging masters of vessels to pay the King a visit, accompanied with a valuable present, arrived in two days at the capital, which is about 40 miles from Gatto, and found it a large and populous town, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. The King, who is *fetiche*, and the chief object of adoration in his dominions, was then about forty-five years old, and eats and sleeps after the manner of mortals. Human sacrifices are not so frequent here as in other parts of Africa: but three or four are annually sacrificed at the mouth of the river, as votive offerings to the sea 'to direct vessels to bend their course to this horrid climate;' which is so unhealthy, that the slave-trade with the English had quite fallen off before the traffic was prohibited.

Warré is situated on a beautiful island five miles in circumference, with a sub-stratum of tenacious red clay, from which the people make their earthen-ware. The population of the town is probably about 5000.

'We had lodgings prepared for us at the house of our guide's father; and soon after our arrival, refreshments were sent us by the King, accompanied by a message that he would be glad to see us the following day. We accordingly waited on him (our guide acting as linguist), and arrived at his house about mid-day. After passing through five or six apartments of various forms and sizes, we were ushered into the audience-chamber, where we found his sable Majesty fully prepared for the occasion, and seated on a low stool, placed on a kind of platform, raised about eighteen inches above the floor. A boy was holding a pink silk umbrella over his head, and another was brushing away flies with an elephant's tail. To our extreme surprise, we found the King rigged out in the European style, and wanting nothing to complete the dress but a shirt and a neckcloth.

'The King, whose name is Otoo, appeared about sixty years of age, his countenance mild and intelligent, and his person of the middle size, inclined to corpulency. He had on a white satin waistcoat trimmed with silver lace, a silk purple coat much embroidered, black satin small-clothes with knee-buckles, coarse thread stockings, shoes and buckles, and a large black hat trimmed round the edge with red feathers; all of which appeared to us of Portuguese fabric, except the coat and waistcoat, which, there is little doubt, had, at a former period, been worn by some noble peer or knight at the court of St. James's.'

Bonny, about five miles from the sea, is the wholesale market for slaves, of whom 20,000 are annually sold; and of these 16,000 are natives of Heebo, which, during the last twenty years, has not exported fewer than 320,000: while those

those of the same nation sold at New and Old Calabar probably amounted in the same space of time to 50,000 more, making a frightful aggregate of 370,000!

‘*Fairs*, where the slaves of the Heebo nation are obtained, are held every five or six weeks at several villages, which are situated on the banks of the rivers and creeks in the interior, and to which the traders of Bonny resort to purchase them.

‘The preparation necessary for going to these fairs generally occupies the Bonny people some days. Large canoes, capable of carrying 120 persons, are launched and stored for the voyage. The traders augment the quantity of their merchandize, by obtaining from their friends, the captains of the slave-ships, a considerable quantity of goods on credit, according to the extent of business they are in the habit of transacting. Evening is the period chosen for the time of departure, when they proceed in a body, accompanied by the noise of drums, horns, and gongs. At the expiration of the sixth day, they generally return, bringing with them 1500 or 2000 slaves, who are sold to Europeans the evening after their arrival, and taken on board the ships.

Nearly the whole of the Gold Coast is unhealthy: but that part of Africa lying between the river Loanga Luiza and Cabenda Hook, and comprizing an extent of sea-coast of nine leagues, in the centre of which is Malemba, in latitude $5^{\circ} 24'$ south, and $12^{\circ} 20'$ east, is not liable to that imputation. Captain Adams calls Malemba the Montpelier of Africa, and thus enumerates its local advantages:

• The trading town of Malemba, which is under the dominion of a cheneo or chief, residing in a town about twenty miles from the sea, called Chingelé, is built near the margin of a cliff, that rises abruptly from the sea-shore to an elevation of one hundred feet, and is entirely composed of a dusky red argillaceous earth.

• On gaining the summit of this cliff, an extensive and beautiful plain presents itself, as far as the sight can reach to the east and south. To the north the country is broken with the windings of the Loanga Luiza river, the margins of which are finely wooded. The plain is covered with a luxuriant grass, and clumps of trees are scattered upon its surface, having the appearance of being planted by the hand of man, to afford him shelter from the sun and rain, and to adorn the landscape.

• The climate of Malemba, when compared with that of any other part of Africa which I have visited, is very salubrious, owing to the dryness of the atmosphere and soil, and the absence of those deep forests so common in other districts. Masters of vessels, and their crews, trading here, have, in consequence, almost uniformly enjoyed good health.

• If salubrity of climate, then, were the only advantage which Malemba possessed over other parts of Africa, between the rivers

Senegal and Congo, it would well deserve the consideration of his Majesty's government, in the event of contemplating the establishment of another colony, besides that of Sierra Leone, of the negroes captured in vessels trading for slaves contrary to law; whether their views might not be advantageously directed hither, as a place where the experiment would be more likely to be attended with success than on the Gold Coast; because it would be here that those Europeans, whose province it would be to watch over an infant colony so composed, would enjoy that state of health so necessary to enable them to superintend, and direct personally, and with proper effect, the physical and moral energies of those Africans committed to their care.

' The Gold Coast is nearly, if not quite, as unhealthy as Sierra Leone; and if the gentlemen sent out by the African committee to Cape Coast Castle were lodged, on their first arrival from Europe, one mile in the interior of the country, instead of within the walls of that castle, the fact would too soon be fatally verified.

' The superior healthiness of the castle itself may be accounted for, by its southern rampart wall being built on a ledge of rocks which project a little way into the sea, and against which rocks the sea beats with great violence, thereby creating at all times a cool and refreshing current of air within the castle. The sea-breeze also blows directly into it, pure as the element over which it wings its course; and, at some seasons of the year, this breeze continues blowing days and nights without intermission.

' The natives, too, of Angola, and of Malemba and Cabenda in particular, are a mild, tractable, inoffensive people, not at all warlike, and form a striking contrast to the natives of the Gold Coast, who are turbulent in disposition, averse from innovation, and over whom the forts have not any control beyond the reach of their guns.

' Cabenda bay, formed by the projection of Cabenda hook, a cape to the west, is an excellent shelter for shipping, and boats can land there at any time, and very generally also under the point at Malemba.

' The river Loanga Luiza has also the appearance of having a navigable entrance, although I believe it has not yet been explored.

' These are local advantages which the Gold Coast does not possess, for there is not a single place on the Gold Coast where a boat can land with safety, except Dixcove and Succundee, and even at these places it is sometimes very dangerous to make the attempt.'

Captain Adams's efforts to solve the problem of the Niger only serve to render it still more obscure. In other respects, however, and on the whole, we recommend this volume to public attention, as communicating much useful and practical information in a simple and unaffected form.— The appendix will be found peculiarly useful to merchant-vessels bound

bound from England to Africa, inasmuch as it gives several important directions respecting the course to be shaped in order to make an expeditious voyage to the Gold Coast, and an important enumeration of the articles, with the prices annexed, which are adapted to barter with the natives.

ART. VIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London for 1823.* Part I. 4to. Price 1l. 12s. sewed. Nicol and Son.

CHEMISTRY, ANATOMY, and NATURAL HISTORY.

THE Croonian Lecture. *Microscopical Observations on the Suspension of the Muscular Motion of the Vibrio Tritici.* By Francis Bauer, Esq., F.R.S. — This well-known observer is perhaps more capable than any other person of ascertaining the length of time during which the moving powers of an animal, too small to become the object of sight without the assistance of the microscope, can have its action suspended, and by change of circumstances renewed; and he considers this as the most curious circumstance and fact, respecting muscular motion, that has hitherto been discovered. The subject of these observations is the animal called *Vibrio Tritici*, the cause of that destructive disease in wheat which is named the *Ear Cockle* or *Purples* by farmers. On opening some of the diseased grains, their cavities were found filled with a mass of a white fibrous substance, apparently cemented together by gluten, and formed into balls, which might easily be extracted entire from the cavities of the grains; and which, when immersed in water, instantly dissolved, and displayed in the field of the microscope hundreds of perfectly organized but extremely minute worms, all of whom, in less than a quarter of an hour, were in lively motion. When these worms had been left in a dried state for five days, they were apparently dead, but, on being moistened, they became in about half an hour as lively as ever.

To determine how these animals are propagated, and how they are introduced into the young corn, Mr. B. traced them through the stages of germination and vegetation of the growing plant of wheat. Believing that their eggs must be conveyed into the cavities of the very young germens of the flowers of wheat by the circulating sap, in the same manner as the seed of the parasitical fungi which occasion the well-known disease of wheat called *Smut*, he inoculated a number of sound grains of wheat by placing some portions of the mass of worms in the grooves on the posterior sides of the

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grains,

grains, and planted them in the ground in the month of October, 1807. No effect from the inoculation was perceived till March, 1808; when, on carefully slitting open the short stalk of the young plant, three or four worms were found within it, perfectly similar to the former, except being two-thirds larger. On the 5th June, worms were found in the cavities of the young germens; and the ingenious observer supposes that, at this time, the newly laid eggs were the beginning of the third generation of the worms with which he had inoculated the grains planted in October, 1807.

At the end of June, the germens were filled with eggs; and at least 100 young worms, all alive, bending and twisting in the water, were seen like so many small serpents. According to the micrometer, the largest were one-fourth of an inch in length and about one-eightieth of an inch in diameter. The eggs, after the worms have quitted them, soon shrivel and decay, finally dissolving and disappearing. Mr. Bauer could not ascertain any distinction of sex, and considers the animals as true hermaphrodites.

Worms thus produced by inoculation retained their reviviscent quality for six years and one month, which was the longest time of suspension; and after that interval the power of resuscitation ceased. Worms from grain *not* produced by inoculation retained their power of recovering loco-motion for five years and eight months, but after that period the resuscitative power was extinguished.

It seems that the mucus secreted by the worms is necessary to their preservation; for, if they be kept in too large a quantity of water, and it be also frequently changed, they soon die. Hence the fact recorded of the shell-snail, which can by its own mucus hermetically seal itself for 30 years in its shell against a wall, is similar to this preservative power of mucus in the case of the worms in question. In the instance of the snail, however, when the mucus is dissolved, the air in the lungs is rarefied, and forces its way out; so that fresh air rushes into the lungs, and it recovers: but with regard to the worms of wheat, although the mucus continues to exist more than 20 years, they lose their reviviscent faculty in 12 years.

The merit of Mr. B.'s observations is much enhanced by his having been previously unacquainted with the works of Needham, Roffredi, and Fontana, who had formerly published their microscopical discoveries of the worms of "*smutty corn*." Two large plates, one with 23 figures, are subjoined, explanatory of the descriptions in this memoir.—The fact ascertained in this paper, of inaction for months, or longer, in beings alive, yet capable of being again excited to muscular movement,

ment; affords a new proof that the motion of action is not a constant property of vitality.

On Metallic Titanium. By W. H. Wollaston, M.D.—Although many chemists have bestowed valuable labor in attempting to establish the evidence for the metallic state of titanium, it is not yet satisfactory. Dr. W.'s attention was directed to this inquiry by certain very small cubes of the ustre of copper, burnished, found in the slag of the iron-works of Merthyr Tydvil, in Wales, and at many other iron-works, which had been confounded with iron pyrites, till his acuteness perceived them to be very different in many properties. These cubes were ascertained to be metallic titanium, after a very judicious and learned investigation, which cannot be fairly abridged.

On the Difference of Structure between the Human Membrana Tympani and that of the Elephant. By Sir Everard Home, Bart., V. P. R. S.—So long since as the year 1799, the author brought proofs that the *membrana tympani* of the elephant is muscular, which led to the discovery that this membrane in the human subject is also muscular; and having now obtained the head of a young elephant, preserved in spirit, he has been enabled to examine with more accuracy the fibres of this *membrane*. From the great difference in its form and structure in the elephant, compared with that of the human ear, it is obvious that this animal cannot adapt its ear to musical sounds as the human ear can, the fibres being of various lengths. To know what purpose was answered by this disproportion in their extent, the effects of high and low notes were tried on an elephant at Exeter 'Change, by playing on the piano-forte and French horn: when the upper notes of the piano-forte scarcely attracted the attention of the animal, but the lower notes excited and retained it. The full sound of the French horn produced the same result.

'The effect of the high notes of the piano-forte upon the great lion in Exeter 'Change only called his attention, which was very great. He remained silent and motionless; but no sooner were the flat notes sounded, than he sprung up, endeavoured to break loose, lashed his tail, and appeared to be enraged and furious, so much so as to alarm the female spectators. This was accompanied with the deepest yells, which ceased with the music.'

On some Fossil-bones discovered in Caverns in the Lime-stone Quarries of Oreston. By Joseph Whidbey, Esq. F.R.S. To which is added a Description of the Bones. By Mr. William Clift, Conservator of the Museum of the College of Surgeons.—

In

In continuing, during 1822, to quarry the lime-stone rock at Oreston, in Catwater, near Plymouth, for the use of the Breakwater, another cave, containing teeth and bones, was discovered, in addition to those that were found in the years 1816 and 1820; and a description is here given of the situation in which the bones were seen, as well as of the caves, with two plates representing them and the quarries.

To the able hand of Mr. Clift was assigned the duty of describing the fossil-bones. In the cavern discovered in 1816, the bones of the rhinoceros alone were found; and in those of 1820, one cavern contained bones and teeth of the deer or antelope: but there being no teeth nor horns, nor any part of the head, the genus could not be positively ascertained. In 1822, the bones of animals of several different genera presented themselves; viz. the bos, the deer, the horse, the hyæna, the wolf, and the fox. The bones of the granivorous animals were mingled together in the same cavity: but those of the carnivorous were at a considerable distance from each other. The only specimen which bears any apparent marks of teeth is a portion of the radius of a young wolf, which, in two or three places on the surface, has the impression of the incisores and canine teeth of some small animal, of the size of a weasel.

The bones from Plymouth contained so little animal matter, that muriatic acid dissolved them, leaving scarcely any thing of that nature: but teeth of the animal incognitum or mastodon, from the blue clay of the banks of the Ohio, and of the bear from the caverns at Gaylenreuth, have retained their animal matter so entirely, that, when muriatic acid dissolves their earth, it leaves the animal matter in the form of the bone. This is the case with the bones of the elephant that has been found in the blue clay at Brentford, Ilford, and other places near the Thames. All the bones from the Plymouth caverns and beds were those of now existing animals; viz. the horse, the hyæna, the wolf, and the fox; and of all these very beautiful engravings are given at the end of Mr. Clift's paper, in which he has shewn himself equal to any cotemporary observers in the department which he has undertaken.

On the double Organs of Generation of the Lamprey, the Conger Eel, the Common Eel, the Barnacle, and the Earth-worm, &c. &c. By Sir Everard Home, Bart. — 'In May, 1806,' says this indefatigable anatomist, 'I discovered that the *teredines* are hermaphrodites, and that the same individual both formed and impregnated the ova. In June, 1815, I found the lamprey to be an animal of the same tribe; and on the present occasion I wish to explain that the conger eel, the

the common eel, and the barnacle, are similar in their mode of generation, every one of these animals impregnating itself.' Sir Everard believes that the conger and the common eel belong to the same species, and differ only in consequence of one living in fresh and the other in salt water. Their organs are similar.

In the *lepas anatifera*, a species of barnacle, the ovaria are situated round the œsophagus, and may be mistaken for the salivary glands; while the penis may be considered as the oviduct for depositing the ova after impregnation. Subsequently to that event, the ova pass through a small opening in the outer covering, into the stem by which the body of the barnacle is suspended; and when the embryo is completely formed, it makes its way out laterally from the stem, leaving behind the shell or covering of the egg attached to the inside of the tube, marking the place from which it escaped; the young *lepas* acquiring a stem of its own. All these circumstances are well represented in drawings annexed.

In the earth-worm, the manner of connection is like that of the leech rather than of the snail. The ova, after impregnation, are conveyed into cells, and there deposited till they are hatched; and in them the young goes into the chrysalis state: though it does not remain immured till the chrysalis-covering is expelled, but eats its way out.

MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, &c.

Corrections applied to the great Meridional Arc, extending from Lat. 8° 9' 38".39 N., to 18° 3' 23".64 N., to reduce it to the Parliamentary Standard. By Lieut. Col. Lambton, F.R.S. — It is known to our readers, that since the question has been agitated relative to the establishment of a new system of weights and measures, Captain Kater has taken great pains to compare with each other the different standard-measures possessed by the Royal Society, the Court of Exchequer, &c.; and that the commissioners determined ultimately to adopt the scale that had been made by Mr. Bird, the relation between which and the French metre had been very accurately ascertained. Colonel Lambton, in the course of his survey in India, had made use of two different scales; the latter of which had been laid off from Ramsden's bar, and required a correction of + '00007 to reduce it to the new standard-scale; and the former a correction of - '000018 to reduce it to the same. The reduction of the different arcs forms the subject of this memoir, the results of which will be principally interesting; viz. the lengths of the arcs corresponding to the different degrees of latitude, and the compression thence arising: which are thus stated:

' The

	Fathoms.
‘ The degree for latitude $9^{\circ} 34' 44'' = 60477,09$	} Indian.
for latitude $13^{\circ} 2' 55'' = 60490,81$	
for latitude $16^{\circ} 34' 42'' = 60511,65$	
for latitude $47^{\circ} 30' 46'' = 60779,00$	
for latitude $52^{\circ} 2' 20'' = 60824,26$	
for latitude $66^{\circ} 20' 12'' = 60955,00$	Swedish.

Then computing from Eq. 3., page 498., in the Philosophical Transactions for 1818, 2d Part, we shall have the ellipticity of the earth as follows :

	1	1	1	Mean.
By the Indian and French	$\frac{1}{310,07}$	$\frac{1}{309,64}$	$\frac{1}{313,73}$	$\frac{1}{311,15}$
By the Indian and English	$\frac{1}{310,3}$	$\frac{1}{309,94}$	$\frac{1}{313,72}$	$\frac{1}{311,32}$
By the Indian and Swedish	$\frac{1}{307,88}$	$\frac{1}{307,55}$	$\frac{1}{309,92}$	$\frac{1}{308,45}$
				General mean $\frac{1}{310,31}$

These fractions for the compression are highly satisfactory, when we consider the great difference in latitude between the extreme arcs; viz. $9^{\circ} 34' 44''$, and $66^{\circ} 20' 12''$.

Computing from the results thus obtained, Colonel Lambton finds the length of the degree on the equator, or in lat. 0, to be 60850.17 fathoms; and for the quadrantal elliptic meridian, from the equator to the pole, he obtains 5467756 fathoms. Now this length, divided by 10.000.000, gives the length of the French metre; and, reduced, it becomes 39.3677 English standard inches: whereas the French standard metre is 39.3709 such inches, both at the temperature of 62° Fahrenheit. — Col. L. concludes by observing;

‘ It may be satisfactory to the mathematicians in Europe to know, that I am now advancing through Hindoostan; and, from what I can learn from the different public authorities, I do not apprehend any difficulty. They are all inviting in their letters, and all seem desirous that I should go through their respective districts. If my present arc be continued direct, it will pass through Bopaul, and near Seronje, where I shall have again to observe the stars and measure a base; and if Scindiah’s country be in a quiet state, my meridian will pass near Gualior, his capital; and my sixth section will terminate near Agra, on the Jumna. I have made up my mind to execute all this if I live, and continue to have that flow of health and spirits which have hitherto attended me. The results of such an extensive measurement must be interesting to scientific men; and I shall exert my endeavours in doing justice to the work, and in giving a faithful account of the operations.’

From

From these concluding lines, in which the author speaks of his health in such favorable terms, every hope might have been reasonably entertained that astronomy and geodesia would still be enriched by his talents and indefatigable labours: but, alas! how uncertain are all human expectations! Before the present memoir had been read to the Society, this distinguished observer had already paid the debt of nature: but his name and memory will be long cherished by every lover of astronomical science.

On the Changes which have taken place in the Declination of some of the principal fixed Stars. By John Pond, Esq., Astronomer Royal, F. R. S. — *Appendix to the preceding Paper.* By the Same. — *On the Parallax of a Lyre.* By the Same. — All our astronomical readers are aware of the controversy which has been long carried on relative to certain changes observed in the situation of some fixed stars, which were supposed to arise from an annual parallax. Unless the stars be actually at an infinite distance, the diameter of the earth's orbit, which in round numbers may be stated at 190,000,000 miles, must subtend from each star a certain angle; which angle, if it amounted to any sensible quantity, ought to be detected by observations from the earth, at those times when the latter body is in opposite parts of its orbit. That such angle, if any, is very small, has always been allowed, and this circumstance was one of the strongest holds for those astronomers who opposed the doctrine of Copernicus: but this point having been long yielded, it became an interesting question to determine the existence or non-existence of a sensible parallax. At one time it has been admitted, at another denied; and indeed the quantity, if any, being unquestionably very inconsiderable, could not by possibility be detected except by the most accurate instruments and the best observers.

The subject had for a long time remained in this state, when a few years ago Dr. Brinkley, of Trinity-College, Dublin, an excellent observer, and possessed of a very fine instrument, imagined that he had actually discovered a sensible parallax in certain stars. A question of so much interest to the science of astronomy, and proceeding from so respectable a quarter, engaged considerable attention; and corresponding observations were undertaken at the Royal Observatory of Greenwich. These, however, failed in detecting the change in question, and new means and new instruments were tried, which also failed. Dr. Brinkley repeated or rather continued his observations, which gave the same results as before, and the subject seemed still involved in doubt. It now appears probable,

probable, however, that Mr. Pond has discovered that the cause of the difference observed, which had been attributed to parallax, is an error in the instrument, proceeding from a difference in temperature at the two opposite seasons of the year near the solstices. At all events, it is very remarkable that the parallax noticed by Dr. Brinkley is much greater in stars so situated as to have their maximum and minimum at these two seasons, than in those in which the same ought to happen at other times.

On this head the astronomer royal observes :

‘ The reason, I conceive, why Dr. Brinkley does not find parallax in γ Draconis is, that with respect to the zenith point, his instrument, like every one of a similar construction, is a perfect instrument. No portion of the arc is employed, nor can temperature here occasion any errors by its changes. As the star to be examined recedes from the zenith, the instrument becomes less and less perfect ; and he finds a small parallax in α Cygni, a larger in α Lyrae, and oftentimes a still larger in stars more remote from the zenith. An additional reason for suspecting that the discordances observed arise from temperature is this : the greatest supposed parallax is found in those stars whose maximum and minimum of parallax would fall in the extreme seasons ; and it is not at all improbable that irregular refraction, arising from the unequal state of the temperature within and without the Observatory, may have had a considerable share in occasioning the Dublin discordances, combined, perhaps, with the effect of the changes of temperature upon the instrument itself. It is a circumstance not hitherto sufficiently noticed by astronomers, that there are many cases where the smallest disturbing cause will produce an error quadruple of its own amount ; and consequently, that the greatest error to which we are liable from such a cause at any one observation will be only one-fourth of the difference that we can detect between the most discordant of them. Of such a nature are those disturbances which, like refraction for instance, introduce errors, both positive and negative, into the determination of either extremity of the arc that measures the distance between two stars.

‘ By a singular combination of circumstances, not probable certainly when considered *à priori*, but by no means impossible, the variation caused by change of temperature may follow an annual law so little differing from that of parallax, as to bring out the assumed parallax, and to leave the solar nutation disengaged.

‘ Notwithstanding the importance of these investigations to the history of astronomy, and to our forming a correct notion of the system of the universe, yet our decision ultimately turns upon so very small a quantity, that our having reduced the enquiry to these narrow limits rather tends to show the perfection of each instrument than the defect of either.

‘ On former occasions I considered the question of parallax in the particular case of α Lyrae as undecided, and as perfectly open to future investigation ; but the observations of the present year have

have produced, on my mind, a conviction approaching to moral certainty. The history of annual parallax appears to me to be this: in proportion as instruments have been imperfect in their construction, they have misled observers into the belief of the existence of sensible parallax. This has happened in Italy to astronomers of the very first reputation. The Dublin instrument is superior to any of a similar construction on the Continent; and accordingly it shows a much less parallax than the Italian astronomers imagined they had detected. Conceiving that I have established, beyond a doubt, that the Greenwich instrument approaches still nearer to perfection, I can come to no other conclusion than that this is the reason why it discovers no parallax at all.

We have hitherto principally referred to the last of the three papers whose titles are given at the head of this subject, because it is conceived that the matter there investigated led to the discovery mentioned in the two former, which may be thus briefly stated. If any correct catalogue of stars, as for example that of Bradley for the year 1756, be compared with a more recent one, as the Greenwich catalogue for 1813, it is possible to deduce the annual variation for each star for the mean period, on the supposition of an uniform proper motion in each; then, allowing for the change of precession for each star, a predicted catalogue may be formed for any subsequent year, as for example, the year 1822. Now such a catalogue being formed, and compared with the observed catalogue for the same year, the following difference will be found to subsist between them:

The general tendency of all the stars will be to appear to the south of their predicted places, and this tendency seems to be greater in southern than in northern stars; if any star be found north of its predicted place, it will always be a star north of the zenith, and the quantity of its motion extremely small. There may be observed a much greater tendency to southern motion in some parts of the heavens than in opposite or distant parts as to right ascension, and in much the greater portion of the heavens the southern motion seems to prevail. A southern star, as Sirius, situated in that part of the heavens most favourable for southern motion, will be found more to the south of its predicted place than Antares, situated in the part least favourable for southern motion, though it is itself more southward.

Several stars have moved more from their predicted places than other neighbouring stars; when this happens, the motion is always southward; I have yet met with no exception to this rule; not a single star can be found having an *extra* tendency to northern motion; and indeed the northern motion in any star is so very small, that it would never have excited attention.

A very great deviation will be found in three very bright stars, Capella, Procyon, and Sirius: the proper motion of each of these

these is southward; it therefore follows that these proper motions are accelerated. The proper motion of Arcturus is very great, and likewise southward. It is situated in that part of the heavens where the southern tendency is least discernible, and is nearly quiescent; its proper motion in polar distance may therefore be considered as uniform. There is a circumstance that deserves notice, though it may be merely accidental: the stars in the Greenwich catalogue, whose proper motions are south, nearly equal in number those that are north, yet the *quantity* of southern proper motion exceeds the northern in the proportion of four to one.

Mr. Pond very judiciously abstains from offering any conjecture as to the cause of these deviations, till he has had the means, by continued observations, of ascertaining more accurately the law which they follow. It will of course be most prudent for us to imitate his example: we shall therefore simply observe that, from the particulars specified in the appendix, and from the tables annexed to these articles, no doubt seems to exist that such an acceleration as that above stated actually takes place; and that any mode of accounting for the general effect noticed, by errors either in the instruments or in the observers, is wholly out of the question. A translation of our system in space has been before considered as probable; and we imagine that in the present instance we must have recourse to this hypothesis for an explanation of the phenomenon in question.

Observations on the Heights of Places in the Trigonometrical Survey of Great Britain, and upon the Latitude of Arbury Hill. By B. Bevan, Esq.—This unassuming paper contains much useful and important information, as well as the correction of some errors which certainly ought not to have found their way into the Trigonometrical Survey. As to the first, on the latitude of Arbury Hill, if the cause of the discrepancy which has provoked so much controversy be (as Mr. Bevan imagines) ascribable to a defect of matter to the north of the station, it implies no blame on the observers: but it excites a suggestion that is certainly worthy of attention. It appears that Mr. Bevan has determined by actual levelling that the country to the north of this station suddenly falls about 400 feet, and continues at this depressed state for eight or nine miles; and, considering the effect produced on the plumb-line in the Mount Schehallien experiments, it is not improbable that such a defect of matter to the northward may have caused a deflection of the plumb-line to the southward, sufficient to have produced that anomaly which has created so much perplexity in the minds of astronomers. We hope that

that the question may be examined under this point of view, and the correction made if any be found requisite.

The remaining part of this paper contains corrections relative to the heights of several hills and stations included in the survey. They have been ascertained by Mr. Bevan by levelling from them to different parts of the Grand Junction Canal, of which the elevation above low-water-mark is well known. The following are some of the principal results:

Wendover station	-	-	height 861 feet.
Kensworth ditto	-	-	- 809½
Bowbrick Hill	-	-	- 571½
Arbury Hill	-	-	- 740½

These results average 78 feet each less than those assigned to the same station in the Trigonometrical Survey.

On the Chinese Year. By J. F. Davis, Esq. F. R. S. — The antiquity of the Chinese as a nation, and the very remote date of certain recorded astronomical observations among them, have induced some historians to give to them more scientific importance than they seem to deserve. Delambre, in his "History of Astronomy," has shewn that the Chinese never did possess a knowledge of this science that was intitled to any consideration; and Mr. Davis has fully justified the remark. 'It is true,' he observes, 'that Confucius has recorded thirty-six eclipses of the sun, the greater number of which have been verified by the calculations of European astronomers; but the recording an eclipse may prove the authenticity of historical annals, while at the same time it proves nothing as to the existence of astronomical science.' As far as the mere observation of the sky is concerned, the Chinese have from the earliest periods been very particular and assiduous; and this Mr. D. conceives to constitute the whole of their astronomy, with the exception of what they have obtained from foreigners, but which obligation their vanity has led them to deny. — A singular fact, characteristic of this nation, is mentioned by Mr. Davis, which he reports from actual knowledge of its truth:

'When Mr. Pearson made them his invaluable present of the vaccine inoculation, it was accompanied by a small pamphlet in Chinese, containing a few necessary directions as to the use of the virus, and stating the discovery to have been English. An *expurgata* edition of this little work was very soon after published, in which not one word was retained as to its origin, nor any trace by which it could be known that the discovery of vaccination was otherwise than Chinese.'

This anecdote is much against the allowance of any credit to their pretended inventions and discoveries. — The conclusion which the author draws from his investigation is that ‘the Chinese year, properly considered as such, is in fact a lunar year, consisting of twelve months of twenty and thirty days alternately; with the triennial intercalation of a thirteenth month, to make it correspond more nearly with the sun’s course.’

Experiments for ascertaining the Velocity of Sound at Madras in the East Indies. By John Goldingham, Esq. F. R. S. — The object of investigation, attempted in this elaborate paper, is not perhaps of very great scientific importance, but it is not without interest, particularly as much disagreement subsists in the experiments and deductions of preceding authors. Some experimenters have concluded that the velocity of sound is the same over land and over water, whether moving with or in opposition to the wind; in dry or in rainy weather; by day or by night; and in winter and summer. Others have contradicted these assertions, and maintained that all the conditions above enumerated have their particular influence. As to the mean velocity of sound, it is stated by different writers in numbers very wide of each other, as we may see in the following table:

	Pedes.	
D. Is. Newton, Eq. Aur.	968	Prin. Ph. Nat. Math. L. 2 Prop. 50.
Nobilis D. Roberts -	1300	Philos. Transact. No. 209.
Nobilis D. Boyle -	1200	Essay of Languid Motion, p. 24.
D. Walker - - -	1338	Philos. Transact. No. 247.
Mersennus - - -	1474	Balistic Prop. 39.
D. Flamsteed and Halley	1142	
Florentini celebres -	1148	Exp. per Acad. del Cimeas, p. 141.
Galli celebres - -	1172	Du Hamel Hist. Acad. Reg.

More recent experiments give the following results :

Experiments in Chili	-	-	-	1227 feet,
Mr. Millington	-	-	-	1130
Mr. Bengenberg	-	-	-	1120
Van Rees	-	-	-	1094.8
French academicians	-	-	-	1106
La Caille	-	-	-	1130
Denham	-	-	-	1142,

besides numerous other results that might be mentioned.

With this uncertainty overhanging the inquiry, such a set of experiments as those that are recorded in this paper cannot fail to be acceptable to philosophers; and, as they were continued for a whole year, they were made under all circumstances of wind and weather. The thermometer, barometer, hygro-

hygrometer, and direction of the wind, were regularly registered: so that the author has been enabled by various comparisons to separate the effects of temperature, pressure, &c., from each other; and to this part we must now confine our attention, or rather limit our extract. After several comparisons of the kind to which we have alluded, Mr. G. concludes by observing;

‘Where the changes are so numerous and so frequent as in the atmosphere of the earth, we cannot expect that our imperfect instruments will be of a construction sufficiently delicate to show accurately every alteration that may affect the motion of the pulses of the air; but by various comparisons and combinations of the results, we may hope to arrive at general conclusions, somewhat approaching the truth.

‘Now, by numerous combinations of the observations just given, when the air was calm, we are led to conclude; first, that for each degree of the thermometer 1,2 feet may be allowed in the velocity of sound for a second; for each degree of the hygrometer 1,4; and for one-tenth of an inch of the barometer 9,2 feet. Then taking these numbers as the basis of the comparison, we find the mean difference of the velocity between a calm, and in a moderate breeze of wind, to be nearly 10 feet in a second. And by comparing other results together, a difference of about $21\frac{1}{2}$ feet in a second, or 1275 in a minute is found between, the wind being in the direction of the motion of sound, or opposed to it.

‘Before I conclude these introductory observations, and explanations of the experiments, it may be proper to refer more particularly to table xi., containing the mean motion of sound for each month of the year, by the experiments with the Mount gun, according to the state of the atmosphere indicated by the different instruments; and to the prevailing monsoons, which may be considered to be the same, during the same months, every year; full information respecting which is given in the former tables. On examining this table, it is rather curious to observe how regularly the mean velocity proceeds to a maximum about the middle of the year, and afterwards retraces its steps; giving us a velocity in one case 1164 feet in a second, and in the other of only 1099 feet. This regularity would, no doubt, be still greater with the mean of the observations of several years.’

Part II. of these Transactions for the present year has just been published.

ART. IX. *Letters on England.*, by Victoire Count de Soligny.
Translated from the Original MSS. 2 Vols. large 12mo. 1*l.* 1*s.*
Boards. Colburn. 1823.

FICTITIOUS letters from fictitious personages are now become a stale joke, or an inefficacious hoax, for they have been too frequent to be able any longer to deceive the public by their assumed pretensions. Among other instances of them,

in our fifty-fifth volume, p. 380., were reviewed the *Letters from England*, by Don Manuel Espriella, translated from the Spanish; and now we have a *soi-disant* Frenchman's *Letters on England*: a similar but less fortunate attempt of some Englishman to comment on the usages and features of his country in the impartial spirit of a stranger. Espriella's Spanish cloak was well made up: the Don was struck precisely with those phenomena which would appear most new and odd to a native of the Peninsula; and the emphatic surprise, with which he described our every-day nationalities, gave a stimulus to his most familiar notices. This pretended Frenchman, however, drops his disguise in every page, and talks of the English with the dislike indeed of a continental, but with the bluntness and insight of a native. We can see little patriotism and less grace in his satire, but much spleen and much verbiage.

How uncivil and unjust is the following delineation!

'The most distinguishing feature of the English character, as it is observable in the general intercourse of society, (and it is this view of it alone that I am about to take,) is a dead, dreary selfishness, which shows itself in a total seclusion within its own thoughts, feelings, and habits, and a total disregard to those of other people, added to an entire carelessness about letting that disregard be seen. Selfishness is the main spring and principle of an Englishman's actions, from the most insignificant to the most important. If, in the street, he relieves a beggar, it is to get rid of him; if he gives way to a stranger or a female, it is because it vexes him to be run against; if he stops to speak to a friend, it is because he recollects that he has something to ask of him; if he pulls off his hat at the theatre, it is for fear of having it pushed off for him; if he invites you to his house, it is because he can afford it; and if he treats you handsomely when you go there, it is that you may remember it, as he does not fail to do;—in short, not to multiply examples, if ever he looks up, on passing, at his own city's cathedral, which is the noblest work of art in the world, it is to see what o'clock it is, that he may not be too late for dinner: not that he cares about keeping his family waiting; but he likes his roast meat *underdone*.

'Next in intensity to an Englishman's selfishness is his personal vanity; of which he has an infinitely greater share than the native of any other nation of civilized Europe. I sincerely believe that the love of virtue, of country, and of human nature, have (*has*) less share in his character than in that of almost any other people of modern or ancient times; and that the excellent political institutions of England, and the noble public charities which are deservedly her boast and glory, owe their rise and stability infinitely less to a general diffusion of patriotism, public spirit, and benevolence, than to a universal prevalence of intense personal vanity, which is cherished and turned to account by the skill and
saga-

sagacity of statesmen, and by that true Christian charity, that really disinterested benevolence, which will always be found among individuals in every age and country. These institutions stand firm, and flourish, because the English *pride themselves* upon their existence, and on the comparative national superiority which results from them. If they refused to support them, they would not have them to *boast of*. It is to the indefatigable exertions of enlightened and disinterested, and sometimes of interested, individuals, that all the public charities of London owe their establishment; and when I describe to you the manner in which their funds are raised in the first instance, and kept up from time to time, you will see that I am not very far from being correct in attributing their support to personal vanity, turned, it is true, to an admirable account; but an account to which the wise and good may turn every thing. When it is intended to raise funds for the establishment of a charitable institution of any kind, the first step is to call a public meeting, by an advertisement in the newspapers of the day; in which it is stated that the meeting will be attended by such and such persons, who are well known as eloquent public speakers. This meeting is open to any person of decent appearance who may choose to attend; and thus another of the characteristics of an Englishman is appealed to—his curiosity. At this meeting the purposes and views of the proposed institution are stated, and eloquent speeches are made by persons who come prepared for this purpose, showing the advantages that will result to all classes of the community from the establishment of it, and containing appeals to the passions of the hearers, their interest, and, lastly, to their vanity; for it is usually understood that the names of the persons subscribing will be *published in the newspapers*. This is the only appeal which an Englishman's boasted reason will not enable him to withstand. As to the general utility of the plan, that is no concern of his; the appeals to his passions in favour of his suffering fellow-creatures he *feels* for a moment, but the next moment he laughs at the weakness of allowing himself to be so worked upon; endeavouring to show that assisting in the proposed establishment will conduce to his personal interests, he considers as a piece of mere impertinence—as if he does not know what his own interest is better than any one else can tell him! But this last appeal to his personal vanity, this certainty of reading his own name in *print*, and of having it read by hundreds of thousands of his fellow-countrymen, is not to be resisted: so he pays his guinea, and goes home, perfectly satisfied if the promise thus made is duly fulfilled, and perfectly careless as to the application of his bounty; but sorely vexed and disappointed if, in printing the said name, any mistake should occur in the initials or orthography, and greatly scandalized that the persons who undertake to attend to these things do not perform their duties better! There are several other means resorted to of raising funds for these purposes; all equally ingenious with the above mentioned, and equally appealing to the same characteristic feeling. At the meeting which I have described, a committee is

usually appointed, to carry the details of the plan into execution. If the funds already collected are not considered as adequate to their purpose, the gentlemen of wealth and consideration, who form the committee, go round, two or three together, in their respective neighbourhoods, where their names and persons are likely to be known, and call at the houses of the different inhabitants, requesting a personal interview, and stating their names and their objects in calling. Now, for a substantial tradesman, or a retired merchant, (and these are always the class of persons thus called upon,) to refuse so small a sum as a guinea, when it is sued for by such respectable gentlemen as those before him, would look very mean indeed; and besides, in the case of the tradesman, it might injure his business to a greater amount; so he pays his guinea as a tax on his consequence and respectability, and never enquires what has or is to become of it!

About forty letters are contained in the first volume, and about thirty in the second. The supposed traveller is conveyed from Dieppe to Brighton and thence to London, where a long pause is made to survey the Elgin marbles, St. Paul's, the Parks, and public buildings. A great portion of tedious matter also occurs about the drama, and the fine arts, and all the actors and painters are minutely and separately criticized by name; while the state of science and prose literature is less completely surveyed. A journey is undertaken to Windsor, which diversifies the topic, and closes the first volume. — Then follows a minute examination of all the living poets; and here, in order to display the author's criticism, but not in order to hold it up to approbation, we copy a short paragraph.

'I shall speak more particularly of Wordsworth first; because, for my own part, I have no doubt whatever that he is, in all the best senses of the word, a greater poet than Byron; and that while *he*, under any conceivable circumstances, *must* have been a poet, Byron, if he has not been made a poet *by* circumstances, might have been prevented by them from being one: in fact, that Wordsworth became a poet by the immutable will of nature, and without the power of becoming otherwise; but that Byron has been made a poet by the resistless strength of his own passions and his own will.'

Is it conceivable that any Frenchman should have such a taste in poetry as this? Lord Byron is an European classic, formed to delight the inhabitants of cities, the scholar, and the philosopher: but Mr. Wordsworth is only the classic of the Lakes; and it requires the leisure, we had almost said the *ennui*, of a solitary mountain-residence, to be able to attend to his minute portraits of nature, and to the little things on which he aims at building an interest. Lord Byron has the dan-

dangerous vivacity of the stage; Mr. Wordsworth the whole-some absorption of morning prayers.

After long essays on the least of our little poets, the author recommences his livelier rambles; and the following notice of the great coach-randevous in St. George's Fields, the *Elephant and Castle*, is a new delineation.

'We will now cross Westminster Bridge, for the purpose of showing you a scene more characteristically English than any other we have yet met with. This is a spot where meet in one point all the outlets from London to the great Surrey, Sussex, and Kent roads, leading to all the most frequented sea-port towns and watering places on the coast, and also to a great proportion of the most favourite country towns and villages which are chosen as the summer-residences of the inhabitants of London. This spot is in the front of an inn, or public house, called the *Elephant and Castle*, at which every public conveyance that passes stops for a short time, both in going and coming. I believe this is a rule to which the drivers of these vehicles make no exception, whatever their haste may be, or whether they have occasion to stop there or not. This produces a scene altogether singular in its effect, and perfectly novel and unaccountable in the eyes of foreigners, who have no notion, till they see its consequences exhibited in so lively a manner on this spot, of the perfect mania that the English have for moving about from one place to another. There is not a merchant of respectability, and scarcely a substantial tradesman, or upper clerk in a public office, who does not, after business hours, — viz. four o'clock, — either mount his horse or chaise, or some public conveyance, and go home from four to ten or twelve miles to dinner, every day of his life during the summer season; and many do this constantly during the winter too, and return in the same manner to business again by nine or ten in the morning. But it is chiefly the meeting of the public stages at this spot which causes the extraordinary life, bustle, and animation of the scene to which I am directing your attention. From whatever part of the metropolis the stages going the different roads (to the counties before mentioned) start, they all stop here; so that persons who do not choose to take their places for any particular hour, or who choose to save half an hour in the time of starting, or who do not know and will not take the trouble to learn at what hour and from whence the stages start by which they wish to travel, — are sure to be right if they come here; for here they all meet and stop; and there are such an extraordinary number of these stages run to all the frequented towns, that you never need wait long without finding a place in one or other of them. For example, during the season when Brighton is frequented, from seven o'clock in the morning till ten at night there are stages pass this spot upon an average every half hour! — and from about eight to ten or eleven in the forenoon, there are frequently three or four Brighton stages to be seen standing here at the same time; all of them supplied with capital horses, and fitted

out in the most admissible manner; and many of them performing the journey (of eighteen leagues) in six hours. There are said to be no less than seven hundred stages in summer, and five hundred in winter, stop at the door of this inn daily throughout the year. By this you may form some idea of the scene which this spot constantly exhibits. And it is astonishing to observe the admirably cool, deliberate, and methodical manner in which all this immense traffic is conducted. There is never the slightest appearance of hurry or confusion. All goes on as if by clockwork. There is one man belonging to the inn who can tell you to a minute what time any stage you may enquire for will be at the door; and you may go into the house, and observe at your ease all that is passing, secure that when it does arrive, and is about to start again, he'll send the coachman in to call you. But the scene outside is the most enlivening. Fancy to yourself twenty stages of different forms and colours, all handsomely decorated, and drawn by blood horses, harnessed and caparisoned in as elegant a manner as those of gentlemen's equipages are with us; within and on the top of which are seated from ten to eighteen well-dressed passengers — for here every body but respectable females and old people prefer going on the outside. Fancy these vehicles to have either just drawn up, or to be on the point of starting again, or some of them started, while others are arriving to take their places; thus causing a perpetual motion, bustle, and change among them. Round every one of these you may suppose several persons collected, — either taking leave of friends who are going on their journey; or making enquiries for, or welcoming friends whose arrival they had been waiting in expectation of; or preparing to start themselves, but uncertain, among the multiplicity of conveyances that offer themselves, which they shall go by. Add to these, persons offering for sale fruit, cakes, &c.; others with a supply of the daily newspapers, which the travellers may not have had an opportunity of procuring before they left home; others arriving with, or carrying away the luggage of the passengers, &c. &c.; the whole enlivened by the perpetually recurring signals of the drivers, signifying that they are ready to start, — “*Now, Sir, if you please,*” and the invariably repeated question of “*All right?*” before they do start: — fancy all this to occur in the open street, at the meeting-point of five populous roads, up and down every one of which streams of pedestrians and of conveyances of all kinds are perpetually crossing and recrossing each other; and add a few of the associations connected with the circumstances that make up the subject of contemplation; and you have before you a scene that, in its kind, is not to be paralleled in the world.

Some merit is displayed in the description of a Christmas pantomime: but it is chiefly a quotation from another observer. In treating of the periodical literature, no conspicuous felicity of judgment is displayed. A trip to Richmond, to Hampstead, and to Oxford occur, but Cambridge is overlooked; and the work closes with a sketch of the pageantry at the coronation.

If a future edition be published, we recommend a considerable abbreviation of this correspondence; half the letters being superfluous, and talking of well-known things in a very usual way, but much *too knowing* for a transient French visitor. Still the work seems adapted for provincial circulation, and may give to domesticated persons, or to the young who cannot afford to travel, a welcome idea of the metropolis.

ART. X. *The Vespers of Palermo*; a Tragedy, in Five Acts. 8vo. 3s. Murray. 1823.

THE tragedy now before us is understood to be the production of Mrs. Hemans, and has been lately represented at Covent-Garden theatre, but with dubious success; and we must attribute this degree of failure to certain errors in the construction and developement of the plot, the whole drama being full of fine diction and poetic feeling. As our comments will be unintelligible without some previous knowledge of the fable, we shall give a slight sketch of it.

Every reader is of course acquainted with the history of the Sicilian Vespers, on which this drama professes to be founded. During the dominion of the French, the Count di Procida, a Sicilian nobleman, is here supposed to return to his country, burning to liberate it from the yoke of the foreigner: he finds hearts resolved and hands ready to assist him in his enterprize; and, among others, his son Raimond di Procida, whom he had not seen since infancy, and who is passionately attached to Constance, sister of Eribert, the alien viceroy. Among all the hearts devoted to liberty, none is more determined than that of Vittoria, a Sicilian lady of large possessions, formerly betrothed to the murdered Conradin, and whose hand is sought by Eribert. The conspirators at length determine to assassinate their enemies; and the marriage-festival of Vittoria is, *with her consent*, appointed for the perpetration of the sanguinary design: but Raimond di Procida refuses to act any part in so treacherous a transaction, and succeeds in saving Constance from the universal massacre. Intelligence of the conspiracy having been communicated, though in vain, to the French, Raimond is supposed to be the person by whom the disclosure has been made; and his father, urged on by Montalba, a gratuitously malignant personage, determines to sit in judgment on his son. Raimond is accordingly condemned; and, though the Count privately endeavours to prevail on him to escape, he refuses to tarnish his fame by such an act, and awaits his death. In
the

the mean time, the French, assembling their forces, make an attack on Palermo, and the Sicilians are on the point of being defeated, when Raimond's chains are struck off by the command of Vittoria:— he then rushes into the battle;— restores the fortune of the day;— and saves the life of his enemy Montalba, but is wounded and dies. What becomes of the Count di Procida and Constance does not fully appear: but it may be presumed that the latter entered among the saintly "Sisterhood of Mercy."

Without any reference to the question of historical accuracy, we must confess that there appear to us to be several important faults in this plot, affecting its dramatic interest. The most material error, perhaps, is that the fable is divided into two: for 'The Vespers of Palermo' may properly be said to terminate at the conclusion of the third act, in which the conspiracy has succeeded, the Viceroy and his countrymen have been massacred, and Raimond has preserved Constance from the slaughter. All the preliminary scenes are auxiliary to this first catastrophe; and the two remaining acts constitute a fresh plot, springing as it were from the conclusion of the former. We feel inclined, at the end of the third act, to inquire with Christopher Sly,

"Sly. A goodly matter, surely— Comes there any more of it?"

"Page. My Lord, 'tis but begun."

The incidents which induce the catastrophe of a tragedy should never be suffered to overpower the catastrophe itself: but, in 'The Vespers of Palermo,' the massacre of thousands is rendered subservient to the death of a single individual; and the consequence is that the effect of the drama is weakened, if not destroyed.— The final catastrophe, also, is not sufficiently connected with the prior incidents. Raimond di Procida dies in battle, fighting, as he had himself proposed to fight, in open combat with the oppressors of his country: but the vesper-massacre was not necessary to produce this event; nor was the supposed treachery of the hero in any way more instrumental. He might as well have perished in the field at the end of the first as of the fifth act. We therefore feel inclined to regard the slaughtering scene in the third act as a wanton waste of blood.

We must now say a few words on the dramatic delineation of the characters, or the *ἦθος*, as it is called by Aristotle. It is well remarked by Twining, in one of his notes on the treatise "*De Arte Poetica*," that "the tragedy of a refined and polished age will always have less *ἦθος* than that of ruder times, because it will have more dignity; more of that uniform and level elevation which excludes strong traits of character.

racter, and the simple unvarnished delineation of the manners." The observation is very applicable to the drama before us; in which the persons, from the peasants to the hero and heroine, all adopt the true conventional sentiments and language of tragedy, which invariably have the effect of destroying individual character. It cannot, certainly, be expected that Mrs. Hemans, who has schooled herself so much, and indeed so admirably, should venture at once to write as nature prompts her; for only persons of a bold and high genius can dare to despise what may be called the decencies of the tragic muse. We consequently discover but little of "wild nature's rigour," in her dramatic conceptions, which are rather the elaborate and beautiful offspring of art:—no highly original traits of character strike us in them;—no new combinations of passion. Raimond di Procida belongs to the great family of heroic lovers, and Constance to that of beautiful and tender heroines. Vittoria, indeed, is a higher attempt, but not altogether successful; for she appears to yield too readily to the treacherous suggestions of the conspirators, and takes too much delight in the massacre, which should not have been introduced on the stage at all. Montalba, also, is most atrociously malignant, without a sufficient *causa causans*. In short, the whole tragedy is too sanguinary.

Some of the tenderer passages of the drama are highly beautiful; and we select, as a pleasing specimen, a scene from the first act between Raimond and Constance.

‘ SCENE iii. — *The Sea-shore.*

‘ *Raimond di Procida. Constance.*

‘ *Con.* There is a shadow far within your eye
Which hath of late been deepening. You were wont
Upon the clearness of your open brow
To wear a brighter spirit, shedding round
Joy, like our southern sun. It is not well,
If some dark thought be gathering o’er your soul,
To hide it from affection. Why is this,
My Raimond, why is this?

‘ *Rai.* Oh! from the dreams
Of youth, sweet Constance, hath not manhood still
A wild and stormy waking? — They depart,
Light after light, our glorious visions fade,
The vaguely beautiful! till earth, unveil’d,
Lies pale around; and life’s realities
Press on the soul, from its unfathom’d depth
Rousing the fiery feelings, and proud thoughts,
In all their fearful strength! — ‘Tis ever thus,
And doubly so with me; for I awoke

With

With high aspirings, making it a curse
To breathe where noble minds are bow'd as here.
— To breathe! — it is not breath!

' *Con.* I know thy grief,
— And is't not mine? — for those devoted men
Doom'd with their life to expiate some wild word,
Born of the social hour. Oh! I have knelt,
E'en at my brother's feet, with fruitless tears,
Imploring him to spare. His heart is shut
Against my voice; yet will I not forsake
The cause of mercy.

' *Rai.* Waste not thou thy prayers,
Oh, gentle love, for them. There's little need
For pity, tho' the galling chain be worn
By some few slaves the less. Let them depart!
There is a world beyond th' oppressor's reach,
And thither lies their way.

' *Con.* Alas! I see
That some new wrong hath pierced you to the soul.

' *Rai.* Pardon, beloved Constance, if my words,
From feelings hourly stung, have caught, perchance,
A tone of bitterness. — Oh! when thine eyes,
With their sweet eloquent thoughtfulness, are fix'd
Thus tenderly on mine, I should forget
All else in their soft beams; and yet I came
To tell thee —

' *Con.* What? What wouldst thou say? O speak! —
Thou wouldst not leave me!

' *Rai.* I have cast a cloud,
The shadow of dark thoughts and ruin'd fortunes,
O'er thy bright spirit. Haply, were I gone,
Thou wouldst resume thyself, and dwell once more
In the clear sunny light of youth and joy,
E'en as before we met — before we loved!

' *Con.* This is but mockery. — Well thou know'st thy love
Hath given me nobler being; made my heart
A home for all the deep sublimities
Of strong affection; and I would not change
Th' exalted life I draw from that pure source,
With all its chequer'd hues of hope and fear,
E'en for the brightest calm. Thou most unkind!
Have I deserved this?

' *Rai.* Oh! thou hast deserved
A love less fatal to thy peace than mine.
Think not 'tis mockery! — but I cannot rest
To be the scorn'd and trampled thing I am
In this degraded land. Its very skies,
That smile as if but festivals were held
Beneath their cloudless azure, weigh me down
With a dull sense of bondage, and I pine
For freedom's charter'd air. I would go forth

To seek my noble father; he hath been
Too long a lonely exile, and his name
Seems fading in the dim obscurity
Which gathers round my fortunes.

' *Con.*

Must we part?

And is it come to this? — Oh! I have still
Deem'd it enough of joy with *thee* to share
E'en grief itself — and now — but this is vain;
Alas! too deep, too fond is woman's love,
Too full of hope, she casts on troubled waves
The treasures of her soul!

' *Rai.*

Oh, speak not thus?

Thy gentle and desponding tones fall cold
Upon my inmost heart. — I leave thee but
To be more worthy of a love like thine.
For I have dreamt of fame! — A few short years,
And we may yet be blest.

' *Con.*

A few short years!

Less time may well suffice for death and fate
To work all change on earth! — To break the ties
Which early love had form'd; and to bow down
Th' elastic spirit, and to blight each flower
Strewn in life's crowded path. — But be it so!
Be it enough to know that happiness
Meets thee on other shores.

' *Rai.*

Where'er I roam

Thou shalt be with my soul! — Thy soft low voice
Shall rise upon remembrance like a strain
Of music heard in boyhood, bringing back
Life's morning freshness. — Oh! that there should be
Things, which we love with such deep tenderness,
But, through that love, to learn how much of woe
Dwells in one hour like this! — Yet weep thou not!
We shall meet soon; and many days, dear love,
Ere I depart.

' *Con.*

Then there's a respite still.

Days! — not a day but in its course may bring
Some strange vicissitude to turn aside
Th' impending blow we shrink from. — Fare thee well. (*returning.*)
— Oh, Raimond, this is not our *last* farewell?
Thou would'st not so deceive me?

' *Rai.*

Doubt me not,

Gentlest and best beloved! we meet again. [*Exit Constance.*]

Let us now turn to the banqueting-hall, in which are
assembled Eribert, his bride Vittoria, Constance, and a num-
ber of the Provençal nobles, in celebration of the wedding of
the two former, when a messenger enters bearing a letter:

' *Mess.*

Pardon, my good lord!

But this demands —

' *Eri.*

‘ *Eri.* What means thy breathless haste ?
And that ill-boding mien ? — Away ! such looks
Befit not hours like these.

‘ *Mess.* The Lord de Couci
Bade me bear this, and say, ’tis fraught with tidings
Of life and death.

‘ *Vit. (hurriedly.)* Is this a time for ought
But revelry ? — My Lord, these dull intrusions
Mar the bright spirit of the festal scene !

‘ *Eri. (to the Messenger.)* Hence ! tell the Lord de Couci we
will talk
Of life and death to-morrow. [Exit Messenger.]

Let there be
Around me none but joyous looks to-day,
And strains whose very echoes wake to mirth !

*[A band of the conspirators enter, to the sound of
music, disguised as shepherds, bacchanals, &c.]*

‘ *Eri.* What forms are these ? — What means this antic triumph ?
‘ *Vit.* ’Tis but a rustic pageant by my vassals
Prepared to grace our bridal. Will you not
Hear their wild music ? Our Sicilian vales
Have many a sweet and mirthful melody,
To which the glad heart bounds. — Breathe ye some strain
Meet for the time, ye sons of Sicily !

(One of the Masquers sings.)

‘ The festal eve, o’er earth and sky,
In her sunset robe, looks bright,
And the purple hills of Sicily,
With their vineyards laugh in light ;
From the marble cities of her plains
Glad voices mingling swell ;
— But with yet more loud and lofty strains,
They shall hail the vesper-bell !
‘ Oh ! sweet its tones, when the summer breeze
Their cadence wafts afar,
To float o’er the blue Sicilian seas,
As they gleam to the first pale star !
The shepherd greets them on his height,
The hermit in his cell ;
— But a deeper power shall breathe, to-night,
In the sound of the vesper-bell ! [The bell rings.]

‘ *Eri.* It is the hour ! — Hark, hark ! — my bride, our
summons !
The altar is prepared and crown’d with flowers
That wait —

‘ *Vit.* The victim ! [A tumult heard without.]
(Procida and Montalba enter, with others, armed.)
‘ *Procida.* Strike ! the hour is come !

‘ *Vit.*

' *Vit.* Welcome, avengers, welcome! Now, be strong!

[*The conspirators throw off their disguise, and rush, with their swords drawn, upon the Provençals. Eribert is wounded, and falls.*]

' *Pro.* Now hath fate reached thee in thy mid career,
Thou reveller in a nation's agonies!

[*The Provençals are driven off, and pursued by the Sicilians.*]

' *Con.* (*supporting Eribert.*) My brother! oh! my brother!

' *Eri.* Have I stood

A leader in the battle-fields of kings,
To perish thus at last? — Ay, by these pangs,
And this strange chill, that heavily doth creep,
Like a slow poison, thro' my curdling veins,
This should be — death! — In sooth a dull exchange
For the gay bridal feast!

' *Voices.* (*without.*) Remember Conradin! — spare none, spare none!

' *Vit.* (*throwing off her bridal wreath and ornaments.*)

This is proud freedom! Now my soul may cast,
In generous scorn, her mantle of dissembling
To earth for ever! — And it is such joy,
As if a captive, from his dull, cold cell,
Might soar at once on charter'd wing to range
The realms of starr'd infinity! — Away!
Vain mockery of a bridal wreath! The hour
For which stern patience ne'er kept watch in vain
Is come; and I may give my bursting heart
Full and indignant scope. — Now, Eribert!
Believe in retribution! What, proud man!
Prince, ruler, conqueror! didst thou deem Heaven slept?
“Or that the unseen, immortal ministers,
Ranging the world, to note e'en purposed crime
In burning characters, had laid aside
Their everlasting attributes for thee?”
— Oh! blind security! — He, in whose dread hand
The lightnings vibrate, holds them back, until
The trampler of this goodly earth hath reach'd
His pyramid-height of power; that so his fall
May, with more fearful oracles, make pale
Man's crown'd oppressors!

' *Con.* Oh! reproach him not!

His soul is trembling on the dizzy brink
Of that dim world where passion may not enter.
Leave him in peace!

' *Voices.* (*without.*) Anjou! Anjou! — De Couci to the rescue!

' *Eri.* (*half-raising himself.*) My brave Provençals! do ye combat still?

And I, your chief, am here! — Now, now I feel
That death indeed is bitter!

' *Vit.* Fare thee well!

Thine eyes so oft, with their insulting smile,

Have

and mistaken views to which he fell a sacrifice, we are fully sensible; and not less from the affection and regard evinced towards him by his friends, than from the narrative of his exertions and sufferings, written by Mr. Sargent, from whose memoirs of him we extract this introductory remark :

‘ Whilst some shall delight to gaze upon the splendid sepulchre of Xavier, and others choose rather to ponder over the granite stone which covers all that is mortal of Swartz, there will not be wanting those who will think of the humble and unfrequented grave of Henry Martyn, and be led to imitate those works of mercy, which have followed him into the world of light and love.’

We cannot but feel that a strong interest, to which we should be sorry if we did not sometimes yield, attaches to the lives and to the death of men devoting their WHOLE LABORS to such a cause; and it is not diminished by reading lines like the following :

‘ O thou worn pilgrim, though no moss-green stone
Tell the awed stranger where thy slumbering dust
Waits for the judgment-day, nor aught of thee
Can sighing friendship trace, yet thy last words
Glowing with deathless character
Live in unnumbered hearts.

‘ Whether in lonely sadness thou didst find
An unfrequented grave — a desert spot
Known only to the solitary bird
That loves the sacred silence of the dead,
Warbling his melancholy song
Constant as night doth fall,’ &c.

Art. 12. *The Bridal of Armagnac*; a Tragedy. By the Rev. T. Streatfield, F.S.A. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Harding and Co. 1823.

‘ The Bridal of Armagnac’ is precisely one of those dramas which every man of education, talent, and feeling, might produce without having received any extraordinary gifts from Apollo. There are three species of composition which may be said to defy criticism, — the very good, the very bad, and those which occupy the exact medium between these two extremes; and to class such productions is all that can be done with them. To that which is eminently excellent, praise can add nothing; blame cannot touch that which is below animadversion; nor can the reviewer’s pen be properly put in requisition where praise and blame are alike inapplicable to his author. We are unfortunately in this dilemma with regard to Mr. Streatfield’s drama, which merits neither commendation nor censure; though, were we compelled to give it a positive character, we should “sneakingly approve” of it.

Art. 13. *Men and Things in 1823*. A Poem in Three Epistles, with Notes. By James Shergold Boone, M.A. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Hatchard and Son. 1823.

That Mr. Boone is a man of high talents, no one who is acquainted with his career at the University can for a moment doubt.

REV. DEC. 1823.

F f

Gifted

Gifted with strong powers of acquisition, and with a correct literary taste, a highly honorable road lay open to him as a scholar : but, not satisfied with the promised trophies of the muses, he has deviated into the doubtful paths of a political course. It is much to be regretted that a man of his age and acquirements should thus have mistaken his true destination and interest ; and, even more, he has not only rushed at once into the arena of public disputes, to signalize himself as a partizan, but has assumed the character of a censor and a leader. Archimedes did not attempt to move the world because he had no place on which he could rest his machinery : but Mr. Boone, without any fulcrum, is striving to turn the political world out of its course. He imagines that he has discovered the path which it behoves our statesmen to tread, and he even seems to think that his pen is powerful enough to induce them to pursue it.

As a poem, these epistles have no very distinguished claims to merit, nor does the author arrogate it for them. His prose-writings, indeed, are much preferable to his poetry, and exhibit an elegant, sensible, and very *English* style. We would much rather see Mr. Boone's pen engaged in some creditable literary work, than in lauding the Foreign Secretary, and teaching him how to steer his vessel through the shoals which surround him. Indeed, according to him, Mr. Canning is to guide the state-bark with more profound skill than even the great " pilot who weathered the storm." The following are some of the marvels which are to be thus achieved :

' 'Tis thine to view all systems, and unite
 Their better parts, distinct, not opposite.
 From various schemes by various minds pursued,
 To separate the dross, and choose the good ;
 To hold the middle path — though few, in sooth,
 Can find where centre all the rays of truth ;
 Can mark, can fix, the very point, where lies
 That mean, sought ever by the good and wise.
 'Tis thine to trace how virtue may misguide,
 And honest feelings err on either side ; —
 Nor with too tighten'd, nor too slack, a rein
 Direct an empire ; — nor relax nor strain
 The springs of state ; nor to thy service call
 Licence that maddens, or restraints that gall.
 'Tis thine to bid wide Education's sway
 Go forth, and speed upon its prosperous way ;
 Yet strive that faith and morals may keep pace
 With mere instruction in the rising race ;
 Or much of ill must wait on minds half taught,
 Incipient knowledge and fermenting thought.'

That Mr. Boone, however, has liberal and patriotic sentiments, we need only copy the following note as a proof :

' I pass indignant, the base servile crew,
 Who still advise what monarchs wish to do.

' If

' If some of these gentlemen had their deserts, they might well find a place in some honest satire, as

' Sacred to ridicule their whole life long,
And the sad burden of some merry song.

' But an Englishman, after all, is but ill qualified to sit in judgment upon men who have been educated in different principles — and have imbibed, with their mothers' milk, prejudices opposite to his own. It is possible that the Metternichs, and Nesselrodes, and Bernstorffs, and Poggo di Borgos, and Chateaubriands, and Montmorencies, may really imagine themselves to be very wise and praiseworthy persons, who are doing a service to mankind as well as their masters, and contributing, forsooth, to the preservation of tranquillity and good order. Surely, however, the duty of a minister is, at the risk of his own station and power, to advise a monarch for the common welfare of the nation and mankind, rather than be subservient to his arbitrary desires, and passions, and caprices. He stands in the double relation of counsellor to the sovereign, and servant of the country. Must he then only say, like old Æolus to Juno,

' "Tuus, o Regina, quod optes

Explorare labor : — mihi jussa capessere fas est ;"

or like the worthy in Tacitus, to his master,

' " Tibi summum rerum judicium Dii dedere : — nobis obsequii gloria relictæ est." '

NOVELS.

Art. 14. *Self-Delusion* ; or, *Adelaide d'Hauteroche, a Tale.* By the Author of "*Domestic Scenes.*" 12mo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

This is certainly a better novel than the public might suppose from the title, which savours too strongly of "the Minerva press ;" yet the work has evidently not emanated from the manufactory in Leadenhall-street. It is a clever second-rate production, most clearly the effort of a female mind, and displaying considerable knowledge of the female heart. The writer's object is to warn all young ladies against the dangers of Platonism ; and the Platonist is proved, on undoubted evidence, to be "at best no better than a go-between," according to the words of a noble poet. The story of Adelaide is in truth an awful example of the evils arising from the "confounded fantasies" of this system : for the heroine, without the slightest intention of injuring those around her, and even proud of her own integrity of heart, alienates the affections of her guardian and benefactor, a well-looking moral man of the age of forty ; destroys his peace of mind for ever ; kills his wife with grief and a consumption ; and robs her guardian's daughter of the affections of her lover.

There is a great deal of vivid, and, we believe, correct painting in the characters of Adelaide and her guardian ; while that of Lady Delmaine is very skilfully touched ; and, as a comic portrait, Dr. Cosby is by no means an unsuccessful attempt, though, perhaps,

perhaps, the tale is, on the whole, of somewhat too mournful a cast. For the benefit of such young ladies as may not have an opportunity of perusing the volumes themselves, we give the pith of them, which is contained in the following 'incontrovertible moral axiom':

'That no innocency of heart or purity of intention can warrant the fostering of a passion for a forbidden object, — or avert the incalculable mischief which must necessarily, in one shape or another, be the consequence.'

Art. 15. *Other Times*; or, the Monks of Leadenhall. By the Author of "The Lollards," "The Mystery," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

We are pleased to see, in this production, a decided improvement of the author, who has been by no means idle in contributing his share towards the amusement of the public in this branch of composition. Many faults, which were prominent in his former productions, are, by the influence of a corrected taste and a sounder judgment, softened down or wholly obliterated in the volumes before us. Their predecessors betrayed an extravagance, and a want of adherence to the modesty of nature, which sometimes made us almost angry with the writer: but, in 'The Monks of Leadenhall,' our good sense, or rather our common sense, is not shocked in this manner; and the author has acquired more skill in the management of his fable, to which, in the present instance, he has contrived to give very considerable interest. He has likewise worked up into his narrative some local antiquarian knowledge, which on the whole has a good effect, though it is occasionally protruded rather too vigorously on the reader's attention. The characters in general are cleverly sketched, but the hero is too nearly allied to the "*far niente*" tribe, and is throughout the work rather a patient than an agent. The cardinal's jester, Mr. Nicholas Bray, is a highly respectable fool, and merits his motley garb.

POLITICS.

Art. 16. *Relative Taxation*; or, Observations on the Impolicy of taxing Malt, Hops, Beer, Soap, Candles, and Leather; with a View of the Manner in which the Duties imposed on them affect the different Kinds of Land, whether in Grass or Tillage, and their constant Tendency to increase Pauperism: with Reasons for substituting a Tax on Property; concluding with an Enquiry into the Effects arising from perpetuating the Land Tax. By Thomas Vaux, Land Agent and Surveyor. 8vo. pp. 232. 7s. 6d. Boards. Relfe. 1823.

We find a strange jumble of sense and nonsense in this book. Mr. Vaux tells us that he 'has devoted himself exclusively to agricultural pursuits;' adds, somewhat unnecessarily, that he is not 'an author by profession;' and seems rather to pride himself on the exemption which he claims, and exercises, from any logical precision or arrangement of his matter. He considers 'the unequal pressure of taxes to be as instrumental in producing the present

sent agricultural distress as any other cause whatever.' We may truly say of taxation, that the practice of it is much better understood than its theory: but it will hardly be disputed that, where a public burden is to be borne, in justice it ought to press equally. Agriculture has had its days of prosperity, while the commercial and manufacturing interests were suffering. Did Mr. Vaux ever inquire what was the relative pressure of taxation in those days? Was there any inequality then? At all events, he did not complain of it. It was very much the fashion, not long ago, to regard the interests of agriculture and of manufactures as conflicting interests; and it was considered to be the interest of the former to advance and of the latter to depress the price of subsistence. This was an error. It is to the diminished cost of provisions that England is now indebted for the foreign increased demand of her goods. We say England, without any discrimination of the industrious classes, for all these are benefited by the necessities of life being accessible; and the farmer himself has felt some little abatement of taxation, something of tythe, of rent, of subsistence, of clothing, and of the price of labor. The pressure of the poor's rate is very unequal, and Mr. Vaux's remarks on this head are correct.

'Machinery supersedes manual labour to such a degree, that many thousands of men with large families have been, and continue to be, removed from manufacturing to country towns. These, from the age of fifteen to twenty, after having gained a settlement by a year's servitude, are drawn to the towns by the temptation of higher wages, which the *fluctuations* in trade often produce; remain there till they marry, and have large families, or from other causes are obliged to seek parochial relief; and then are returned to their former parishes. Their support consequently devolves on the agricultural classes, when they are no longer able to labour; though, while they were able, the manufacturer alone enjoyed the advantage of it. On the other hand, if a young man leave his trade and turn farmer, a year's servitude gains him a settlement; and consequently the moment he becomes disqualified for earning a livelihood, he must be supported where his settlement is gained; so that in all cases the burden falls on the agricultural classes. They have not, however, to support merely those who are disqualified for labour, as the sturdy labourer, who cannot get employment, must be also supported by them.'

Mr. Vaux has some singular notions on the subject of machinery. He says that the amount of manual labour, superseded by the use of machinery in agriculture, bears no proportion whatever to that which it supersedes in agriculture; and the speculative inference which, by some loose logic, he draws from this is that, 'in proportion as the manufacturer gains by the use of machinery, the land-owner loses by it!' This is only absurd: but he has a practical inference which, if he were prime minister, would be fearfully mischievous: viz. 'that machinery, whether used in agriculture or manufactories, *should be taxed in proportion to the labour which it supersedes*, and the proceeds applied to the support of paupers.

After this specimen of the author's views of relative taxation, our readers will feel very little disposed to be detained much longer. Not only, says he, do the public burdens oppress the agricultural interest in general more than any other, but they affect the agricultural classes themselves unequally *; and he complains that 'the richest soils pay comparatively nothing while the poor lands continue to be driven out of cultivation by excessive and partial taxation; that is, partial in its effect, though impartial in its appearance.' Mr. V. would virtually offer a premium for the cultivation of poor lands: but did it never occur to him that soils, whose produce is insufficient to repay the ordinary expences of tillage, can only be cultivated with a profit to the individual at the expence of the public, who must be taxed for that purpose? On the same ingenious and wise principle that he would tax machinery in proportion to the labor which it supersedes, that is, in proportion to its efficacy and perfection, he would likewise tax lands of various qualities in proportion to their productiveness; though on this latter subject he feels some diffidence, being 'aware of the difficulty of taxing land *so as to satisfy all parties.*' This device of clogging the wheels of a good machine, in order to reduce its powers to the level of an ordinary one, and of sterilizing a fertile soil to the level of a barren one by means of taxation, has unquestionable claim to the merit of novelty; it is something like tying up the legs of a racer to reduce his speed to the level of a cart-horse: a good subject for the pencil of Geoffry Gambado. We should be very glad to see the taxes enumerated in the title-page of this book reduced, and if possible abolished, with a great many others: what the farmer wants is an extended

* Mr. V. has made some calculations on this subject, from which he draws the following table:

	Rent, per Acre.			Direct Taxation, per Acre.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Hop Ground - - -	2	0	0	3	0	0
Barley land, inferior quality, supposing a crop once in five years, direct taxation, 10s. — rent, 10s. - -	0	10	0	0	10	0
Barley land, medium quality - -	1	5	0	0	10	0
Wheat land, medium quality - -	1	0	0	2	0	0
Grass ditto - - -	1	10	0	0	2	6
Dairy land - - -	2	0	0	0	5	0
Garden ground in the vicinity of large towns - - -	4	0	0	3	0	0
Grass land in the vicinity of large towns, for milk, &c. - -	4	0	0	0	5	0
Wood, and plantation ground - -	8	0	0	0	1	0
Ground rents — from 100℥. to 500℥. per acre - - -						

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consumption of his produce, and this can best be done by making it accessible in point of price to the great mass of the people, who are his consumers. The malt-tax, on this account, is excessively hurtful to the farmer, and cruel to the labourer. The beer-duties are injurious for the same reason; and those on the distillation of grain are equally prejudicial; operating to the encouragement of smuggling and to the loss of revenue. As a substitute for these duties, Mr. V. recommends a *bond fide* property-tax: but we are inclined to recommend a *bond fide* system of retrenchment and economy as more effectual.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 17. *A View of the Structure, Functions, and Disorders, of the Stomach and alimentary Organs of the Human Body; with physiological Observations and Remarks upon the Qualities and Effects of Food and fermented Liquors.* By Thomas Hare, F.L.S. and F. Royal Coll. Surgeons. 8vo. pp. 300. Longman and Co.

Like some other works which we have lately had occasion to notice, this treatise is intended to be within the reach of unprofessional readers, although not distinctly addressed to them: but it does not appear to us to possess the necessary qualities to interest or to be readily understood by such persons. With the view, we presume, of rendering the subject more accessible to readers of this description, Mr. H. has omitted no opportunity of translating technical terms, and explaining their etymology, but not always with that success which we could have wished. The author has also treated his subject in a very extended manner, introducing many topics which appear to be altogether foreign to those that are announced in the title. Thus the ultimate fibres of muscle, tendon, and cellular tissue, of vegetable substance, and of asbestos, occupy a considerable share of his attention. He has also indulged in digressions on fever, tetanus, plague, and other diseases; and he has even made allusions to the more remote subject of those specimens of organic remains which have been dug up in some parts of England. The stomach, and all the other viscera, either immediately or more distantly connected with the process of digestion, are brought under review; and the remarks on each organ are introduced by a half popular description of its anatomy; but by the unprofessional, we fear, these anatomical passages will be found obscure and unintelligible.

A considerable portion of the volume is dedicated to the consideration of the teeth, regarding which the author's views appear to us interesting and ingenious. It is the belief of Mr. H., and for which he shews good reason, that the enamel of the teeth crystallizes in prisms; and he considers it to be totally devoid of vitality. We have long entertained the opinion which is so well stated by Mr. Hare, that the diseases of the teeth depend very much on the deranged state of the stomach and alimentary canal: but we cannot agree with him in believing that the decay of the

teeth uniformly commences on the external surface; and that this is, in such cases, either eroded by acrid secretions within the mouth, or destroyed by the pressure of the adjacent teeth. Those who have most assiduously watched the decay of these parts will bear witness to the frequent occurrence of disease within the enamel, and will readily call to mind the dark spot which in many cases long precedes the breaking up of the polished surface of that crust. Disorders of the stomach and alimentary canal, in our opinion, produce disease of the teeth by the same mode of action by which they cause other morbid affections in distant parts, where no chemical agency of vitiated secretions can possibly be suspected. — This allusion to the constitutional influence of stomach-diseases leads us to remark that Mr. H. has adopted the same views with regard to scrofula which have been so well illustrated by Mr. Lloyd. His observations on the treatment of that disease, although rather brief, are judicious, and deserving of attention.

This work is more of a descriptive and speculative than of a practical character, and therefore contains very few cases of disease: but two, which are inserted, are particularly intitled to notice. In both, a deposition of powerfully odorous substances, which had been taken into the stomach, was found within the ventricles of the brain; and the strong odour of assafoetida is stated to have been distinctly perceived by the author, and by three other gentlemen, on opening the cavities of the brain, in a person who had swallowed a preparation of that drug shortly before death. The other case is that which has been described by Dr. Cooke (*Treatise on Palsy*, p. 222.), and to a certain extent confirmed by Dr. Paris; in which the fluid of the cerebral cavities appeared to the smell and taste distinctly impregnated with gin, in a person who had died under the immediate effects of that liquor. Such cases present us with a new view of the powers of the exhalent and absorbent vessels of the brain. If highly stimulant and odorous substances can be thus, on some occasions, deposited within the brain in considerable quantities, it is not improbable that they are often thrown into its cavities in more minute proportions, and again absorbed and decomposed, or expelled from the system: thus leading us to ascribe a much greater force and rapidity of action to the exhalent and absorbent vessels of that organ, than we have usually believed them to possess. Should the cases to which we have now referred be corroborated by more extended observations, they will naturally give rise to the inquiry, how far alcohol and such substances produce their peculiar effects on the frame, in consequence, not of mere sympathy with the nerves of the stomach, but of direct contact with the brain itself. The subject certainly possesses much interest, and seems to present a fertile field, with ample promise of reward, to the ingenious and careful experimenter.

E D U C A T I O N.

Art. 18. *The French Master* ; or, Elementary Grammar designed to facilitate the Study of the French Language, &c. By P. Maggi, Teacher of modern Languages, York. 12mo. Baldwin and Co.

This grammar is composed in the form of question and answer. At page 2. the author defines a diphthong somewhat peculiarly: he considers *ia* in *diamant, fiacre, viande*, where the vowels form distinct syllables, as a diphthong; and he calls by the name *voyelles composées* the *ai* in *Français*, and the *eui* in *recueil*, where the vowels form but one syllable. In the comparison of adjectives, the comparative degree is subdivided into comparison of superiority, inferiority, and equality; and the superlative degree into absolute and relative. Verbs frequently termed reciprocal are here called pronominal. At p. 139. a convenient table is given of the conjunctions; distinguishing those which govern the infinitive, the indicative, or the subjunctive. Among the interjections, we do not find the *bah!* so frequent in French conversation. — An useful rule is given at p. 147., which we do not recollect to have seen recorded elsewhere, even in the voluminous Chambaud; viz. that a collective substantive follows the number of the word which it governs; thus, *La plupart de son temps est mal employée*, but *La plupart des enfans sont cruels*. — At p. 161. the article on idiotisms has merit. — At p. 167. some English notes are inserted, to be translated into French: but in one the English is more common than elegant; viz. *will do herself the pleasure*. Why not, as in French, *will have the pleasure?*

These strike us as some of the most peculiar features of a grammar which must of course repeat much of the necessary information, but which is drawn up with neatness, in a compendious manner, and with no servility to models.

The preface is written in English, but the grammar itself in French, which renders it less convenient to the pupil than to the teacher. Mr. Maggi announces a similar work on the Italian language. — We wished for a chapter on prosody: the laws of French versification being little understood in England, yet very requisite to those who would fairly appreciate the difficulties of the French poet, or who aspire to write a *billet-doux* in rhyme.

Art. 19. *Remarks on the Practice of Grammarians*; with an Attempt to discover the Principles of a new System of English Grammar. By John Kigan. 12mo. Printed at Belfast for Longman and Co. London.

Wallis wrote in Latin an English grammar, which is one of the best extant, and has the rare merit of being founded on a knowledge of the Gothic tongues; without a comparison of which, the laws of native or domestic analogy cannot be satisfactorily ascertained. Johnson, Lowth, and other scholars, have not written satisfactorily about the English language, because they were ignorant of the collateral dialects, and have imported laws of Latin grammar which are inapplicable to northern speech. Murray's work is
free

free from this attempt to legislate on foreign principles, and has therefore superseded the instructions of more celebrated authors.

The writer of the remarks before us, which seem to be preparatory to a new system of English grammar, is a native of Ireland, and apparently much attached to logical and metaphysical literature; for he begins by defining terms with needless anxiety, and proceeds to invent new grammatical categories. The words *idea* and *notion* are first analyzed; and it is observed, justly, that *idea* denotes the image which an object of sense leaves in the memory; while *notion* denotes the conclusion, or affirmation, which we form in our own minds concerning any thing. An *idea*, therefore, is but an impression, and a *notion* is a proposition. The author, however, proceeds to compare likewise the words *object* and *thing*; and he proposes to restrict the word *object* to denote that of which he can acquire an *idea*: using the word *thing* to denote that of which he can acquire only a *notion*. Now this use, or rather abuse, of the word *thing* is intolerable in precise language: for *thing* always denotes an exterior reality, and is never applied to an abstract proposition; yet of an abstract proposition we may conceive a *notion*.

Mr. Kigan notices the division of grammar into orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody: but this classification is not sufficient. Orthoepey, or right pronunciation, is an essential part of grammar, yet it cannot be classed under any of these heads. Etymology should have been placed first; as orthography follows from etymology, and orthoepey from orthography.

Words are properly divided into nouns and verbs, for these are classes to which all others are reducible: but Mr. Kigan, in his disposition for multiplying definitions, has contrived to render these classes indistinct. A *noun*, he says, p. 12., is the name of any *thing* (so far, good, and enough: but he goes on) that exists (as if a thing could not exist), or of which we have any *notion*. Now, after having defined a *notion* to be a conclusion, or affirmation, it is a necessary consequence that of a *thing* we cannot form a *notion*, but only an *idea*. Nouns, therefore, represent ideas, and verbs represent notions.

Nouns are next subdivided into attributive, active, personal, &c., while verbs are subdivided into definitive, descriptive, ascriptive, affirmative, and even comparative; under which denomination adjectives are here meant.

Enough has been said to shew, that the most peculiar part of this grammar consists in the metaphysical matter introduced; and as this wants clearness and precision, we cannot bestow any sincere praise on it. That the common rules are regularly enumerated, that several happy examples are adduced, and that the quotations are usually moral and elegant, these are merits common to most books of instruction of this class: but the present is not likely to supersede extensively the established resources of schools, and the received manuals of discipline.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 20. *Memorable Days in America*; being a Journal of a Tour to the United States; principally undertaken to ascertain, by positive Evidence, the Condition and probable Prospects of British Emigrants; including Accounts of Mr. Birkbeck's Settlement in the Illinois, and intended to shew Men and Things as they are in America. By W. Faux, an English Farmer. 8vo. pp. 488. 14s. Boards. Simpkin and Co. 1823.

Although the press teems with the publications of our countrymen who have visited America, each favoring us with an account of the manners and customs of society, practised by our trans-Atlantic friends, yet so ill do their opinions accord with each other, and even so contradictory are their relations, that the reader may with more justice complain that he is bewildered and confounded, than boast that he has derived any true and satisfactory information from them. Mr. Faux declares that the motive which induced him to visit America, and give to the public the results of his experience, was a strong desire to ascertain the real truth, in all particulars relating to that land of boasted liberty. Nothing could be more patriotic; nor could he have brought home a more useful and honorable testimony of his labors than a work written in the spirit of justice, and with that strict adherence to truth, of which he asserts that he was so anxiously in quest. So numerous, however, and flagrant are the contradictions in his journal, and so excessively ridiculous and improbable are many of his anecdotes, that to credit all his relations will require a greater degree of complaisance, we suspect, than the bulk of his readers will be found willing to bestow.

After a long and tedious passage, the dangers of which are tediously recounted in 27 pages, Mr. Faux arrived at Boston; where he assures us that, on landing, 'all were eager to behold, and gaze, and guess, what I, the foreigner, was, whence coming, whither going, and why!' By this, we might be led to suppose that at Boston, (which he had himself described in the preceding page as 'the grand emporium of Yankee-land,') either the arrival of a stranger is an event of considerable importance, or that he was himself a *rara avis in terris*; and when we see him, a few days afterward, at Charleston, making a memorandum that the parson 'prayed not for George IV., but for the President; not for lords temporal and spiritual, in parliament assembled, but for Congress,' (p. 50.) it is not surprizing that he should have excited the curiosity of the natives, and have been regarded as something extraordinary. From Charleston he went by sea to Philadelphia, where he witnessed the celebration of the anniversary of American independence, on the 4th of July: on which occasion he does not omit to notice that an oration was delivered, in which General Washington was 'highly eulogized,' and was 'compared to Cincinnatus'; that his effigy was exhibited in Vauxhall gardens, &c. A few pages farther, however, alluding to this great statesman, he makes the following remark: 'The memory of that unequalled man

man seems, however, little revered, and his family is not more respected than that of any other person.' (P. 111.) In the course of the narrative, forgetting what he had first said, and then unsaid, Mr. Faux does not hesitate to make the following declaration : ' Every state in this mighty Union seems emulous of building towns, *monumental piles of immortality*, to General Washington.' (P. 211.) So much for consistency, and for the reliance which can be placed on the remarks of this traveller.

With equal justice and liberality does he paint the character and condition of the Americans generally. We give a specimen : ' Ignorance, and love of animal indulgence, it is said, here frustrate and set at nought the system of representation. A good man, therefore, cannot get into Congress ; but a bad man, not fit for a constable, often succeeds by the means of influential whiskey.' (P. 113.) Again, the following is offered as a picture of the condition of the American people : ' Low ease ; a little avoidable want ; little or no industry ; little or no real capital, nor any effort to create any ; no struggling, no luxury, and perhaps nothing like satisfaction or happiness ; no real relish of life ; living like store pigs in a wood, or fattening pigs in a sty.' (P. 125.) Once more : ' The American, *considered as an animal*, is filthy, bordering on the beastly ; as a man, he seems a being of superior capabilities ; his attention to his teeth, which are generally very white, is a fine exception to his general habits. *All his vices and imperfections seem natural, — those of the semi-barbarian.*' (P. 202.) Numerous other passages might be cited, but we imagine that enough has been already quoted to afford a specimen of the sentiment and diction with which this history of ' Memorable Days' abounds. We cannot, however, dismiss the production, without reprobating the gross personalities in which the author has, on more than one occasion, chosen to indulge himself ; and the introduction of private anecdotes relating to the families of Mr. Woods, Mr. Flower, and Mr. Birkbeck, all of whom he visited : these argue a total want of delicacy and good feeling. Misunderstandings entirely of a private nature having taken place between the two latter gentlemen, this tale-bearing ' Farmer' does not hesitate to lay the whole particulars of their family-dissensions before the public, and, without a blush, concludes by saying that ' he has given both sides of the question as completely as they could be gathered from verbal statements !'

To those whom the more favorable representations of Mr. Birkbeck may have induced to leave their native country and settle on the uncultivated banks of the Illinois, Mr. Faux holds out no very flattering prospect : but we would recommend our countrymen, before they decide on the important question of emigration, at all events to consult other authorities than that of a man who, after having been treated (by his own account) in the most hospitable, not to say the most liberal and friendly manner, has dared to assert, speaking of the American character, that ' religion and duty seem but little understood, and less regarded, except it be to ascertain how little of either may suffice !' They will appeal to some other

source, if they wish for solid information as to the actual 'condition and probable prospects of British emigrants.'

Art. 21. *An Appeal to Common Sense and to Religion, on the Catholic Question; with a Word on Tythes.* By W. J. Baldwin, Esq., Magistrate for the Counties of Cork and Kerry. 8vo. pp. 166. Ridgway. 1823.

This pamphlet is inscribed to the Marquis Wellesley in a page so *brim-full* of hyperbole, inflation, and flattery, as probably to be without a parallel. If the noble Marquis, to borrow a word from Shakspeare, can *flapdragon* such a huge meal of complimentary phrases, he must have an appetite of inordinate avidity, and a stomach of immeasurable capacity. Mr. Baldwin, however, is evidently relieved by this explosion of gas: for, when he comes to the subject of his treatise, he writes like a sensible man, without much extravagance of diction, often sustaining his argument with ability, and always adopting a persuasive and conciliating tone. With the Catholics and Protestants of Ireland collectively he is equally well acquainted, and to them individually he is equally attached: for he tells us that all his father's ancestors, since the Reformation in England, were Protestants; while all those of his mother, probably from the first introduction of Christianity into Ireland, were Catholics. With both parties, therefore, he is alike connected, and he laudably and feelingly steps forwards to assuage the angry passions of both. As the majority of Protestants have no other Orange or anti-Catholic feeling than an apprehension of Catholic persecution or domination, should it have an opportunity of being exercised; and as the majority of Catholics have no other anti-Protestant feeling than a similar apprehension; Mr. Baldwin endeavors to shew that both fears are ill founded, and only entertained from the distance at which political distinctions keep them from each other.

The question is, whether Catholics should have an equal admissibility with their Protestant countrymen to all the benefits and situations of that constitution which they, the Catholics, first formed, afterward regained and handed down, and at present equally contribute to support. They ask for the recognition of equal rights and privileges with the Protestants; and if this recognition can be granted without danger to the government, to the church, and to the Protestants, while the withholding of it is a source of discord, insecurity, and weakness to the country, what possible case can be stronger? Mr. Baldwin, first generally, and then *seriatim*, considers those practical and speculative tenets in the Catholic religion which are by many conscientious people regarded as of dangerous tendency; and, after a comprehensive answer to the whole objections, he gives a specific answer to each. Indulgences, auricular confession, mental reservation in oaths, not keeping faith with heretics, the Pope's supremacy, exclusive salvation, the spirit of proselytism and of religious persecution, Catholic breaches of allegiance, the coronation-oath, the veto; these are the principal or at least the ostensible grounds on which

which the advocates for Protestant ascendancy defend the exclusion of Catholics from political power and trust, Mr. Baldwin has shewn the futility of them all.

Art. 22. *An Elementary Course of Gymnastic Exercises*; intended to develope and improve the Physical Powers of Man. By Peter Henry Clias, Esq., Professor of Gymnastics at the Academy of Berne. Illustrated by Six Engravings. 8vo. pp. 111. Sherwood and Co. 1823.

Art. 23. *Instructions in all Kinds of Gymnastic Exercises, as taught and practised in the Gymnastic Institutions of Germany.* Designed as well for Colleges, Schools, and other Places of Education, as for Private Use. With Eleven Illustrative Plates. By a Military Officer. 8vo. pp. 99. 6s. 6d. Boards. Whitakers. 1823.

It is not a little remarkable that gymnastic exercises, which made so essential a part of education among the antient Greeks and Romans, have been, *as a system*, almost entirely neglected in modern Europe till within the last twenty or thirty years; and that, after the revival of athletic sports on the Continent, England has almost confined her taste to the elegant and noble game of cricket, and to the brave but brutal practice of boxing. We have scarcely a Greek or Roman poet who does not celebrate the laurelled victors of the gymnasia. Homer describes in the twenty-third Iliad the games which were celebrated at the funeral of Patroclus; chariot and foot races, wrestling, throwing the discus, drawing the bow, hurling the javelin, &c. &c.; and four were peculiarly termed *iesoi*, (sacred,) not more because they were instituted in honor of the gods and of deified heroes, than from the high esteem in which they were held all over Greece. Who has not felt his blood flow in a fuller and a freer current, while reading of some victor, honored, and almost adored, returning in his triumphal chariot from the Olympic, the Pythian, the Nemean, or the Isthmian games? The Romans, who caught from the Greeks their ardor for gymnastics, carried them to the utmost perfection; and they declined only with the declension of the empire.

The first attempts to revive the exercises of the Greeks appear to have been made by the Germans: who, towards the close of the last century, framed a course of elementary gymnastic exercises at Schnepfenthal, under the direction of Salzmann, which was afterward improved and arranged by GutsMuth, who published the first modern treatise on this subject in 1793; the second edition of which appeared in 1804, intitled "*Die Gymnastik.*" It was in Denmark that these exercises were first considered in a national point of view; and in 1803 the number of gymnastic establishments in that country had already amounted to fourteen, to which three thousand young men resorted; since which period, the government has issued an order for allotting a space of two hundred square yards to every public school for the purpose of gymnastic exercises. In 1810, the gymnastic establishment at Berlin was placed under the direction of Jahn; through whose
zeal

zeal and perseverance a taste for manly sports, so adapted to strengthen and give elasticity to the muscular powers, has been widely diffused over Germany. Captain Cliaß, we see, is professor of gymnastics at Berne; and he says that he has superintended the 'physical education' of two thousand pupils, not one of whom ever experienced the slightest accident. This remark is very well thrown in; for a venerable matron and her virgin sister, who had passed the grand climacteric, happening to cast their eyes over the plates of these volumes as they were lying on our table, and seeing the Herculean attitudes of some wrestling, others balancing, some climbing the column of pegs, the rope, or the mast, others taking the long leap with the pole, and vaulting over the bar, exclaimed with maternal and *maternal* anxiety, that the legislature ought to prohibit such dangerous sports; since the unavoidable accidents, to which human life and limb are exposed, are quite sufficient without increasing the number of them by wantonness and temerity. An assurance, therefore, of the perfect safety with which these athletics have actually been conducted may soothe the apprehensions, and conciliate the assent, of those whose sensitive and anxious feelings are the last to be disregarded. We understand, too, that the system of Captain Cliaß has been patronized by our Commander-in-chief of the army, and by his orders introduced at the Royal Military Asylum at Chelsea; where, under the superintendence of Captain C., the numerous boys of that excellent institution have been and still are practising all these exercises with the best effect, and without the least apprehension of danger by the medical officers of the establishment.

Children hate to be idle; all the care, then, says a high authority, (Mr. Locke,) is that their busy humor should be constantly employed in something likely to be of use to them. In England, the attention of those who have had the superintendence of education has generally been confined to the moral and intellectual part of it, leaving the physical almost alone. Children rush out of school, and play with peg-top or marbles, or at hop-scotch, which can be of no use to them in after-life, for they teach nothing, and lead to nothing. Some,

" Chase the rolling circle's speed,
Or urge the flying ball:"

but swimming, running, skating, jumping, climbing, wrestling, and many other sports, promote immediate gratification, invigorate the muscles of the body, and are likely to be called into action for purposes of personal safety in future life. Mere relaxation of the mind, desirable and necessary as it is, alone is not sufficient; and, when boys are left entirely to the invention of their own recreations and amusements, nothing else is considered but mere relaxation; and the promotion of health, vigor, courage, elasticity, and grace of action, are accidental circumstances, which may or may not be connected with their sports. Much, therefore, is to be *taught* in these as in other matters; and we are glad to observe that, in some of our seminaries for youth, they have been
sys-

systematically introduced. A few weeks ago we saw in the news-papers that "a numerous and fashionable company" had assembled to view the cadets of the Royal Military College at Sandhurst perform gymnastic exercises; that several prizes were adjudged; and that the names of the young heroes were recorded with becoming honor. As to the prizes, however, we cannot think they were all very judiciously selected: for instance, one gentleman cadet received, for his activity in the "various exercises" of the day, a handsome and richly-chased gold snuff-box; and another had a *reward* of five guineas for swiftness in running. Money should not be offered to a gentleman on such occasions, but the reward should always be appropriate and applicable;

"What shall he have who kills the deer?"

His leather-skin and horns to wear."

Who does not admire the singular adaptation of the prize to the struggle, when, at our country-fairs, the clown who catches and holds fast the pig with a soaped tail has the pig for his pains, to barbecue whole, or cut into savoury griskins?

The small volumes which we have named at the head of this article contain a great portion of useful instruction, and we strongly recommend them to schoolmasters and others who have the superintendence of young persons confided to their care. The lads themselves, too, will like to read them, and always (as we learn) are pleased to practise the exercises.

It might be invidious for us to scrutinize the differences between these two publications, and to attempt to establish a balance of merit between them. Treating both very usefully on exactly the same subject, and being both worthy of perusal, we would abstain from such a comparison, and will only observe that the volume of Captain Elias was foremost in point of appearance before the public. The 'Military Officer' alludes to it in his preface, and states that it was in no degree the cause or origin of his own labors, for that his 'MS. was put into the hands of the publishers the same day on which the former was announced.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

We believe that we never received the work mentioned by B. C. (Regent's Park,) as having been sent to us 'a year and a half ago,' no record of it appearing in our lists: nor does it treat on a subject of which we should be desirous to undertake the discussion.

Inquirer will be satisfied in our next Number.

It is not in our power at present to give a definite answer to Mr. Smith; but we will not forget the subject of his letter.

* * * The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published on the 1st of February, with the Number for January, and will contain a variety of important *Foreign* articles, &c. as usual.



THE
A P P E N D I X
TO THE
HUNDRED AND SECOND VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Histoire et Description du Muséum Royal, &c.; i. e. A History and Description of the Royal Museum of Natural History*, prepared for the Press in pursuance of the Orders of the Curators of the Museum, by M. DELUZE; with Three Plans and Fourteen Views of the Gardens, Galleries, and Menagerie. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1823. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 1*l.* 10*s.* sewed.

As early as the year 1626, Louis XIII., by letters patent, founded a Botanic Garden, and placed it under the direction of M. *Hérouard*, his first physician, and his successors in office, and of M. *de la Brosse*, his physician in ordinary: but the death of the former, and other circumstances, delayed the fulfilment of the royal grant till March, 1635, which may therefore be regarded as the real date of the institution. *De la Brosse*, to whom was now confided the principal direction, with an annual salary of 6000 livres, and power to name three pharmaceutical demonstrators, exerted himself with such activity that, in 1640, the Garden was opened; and in the following year it was found to contain 2360 species and varieties, of which he published a catalogue: but scarcely had he surmounted the principal obstacles to the undertaking, when death put a period to his zealous and well directed efforts; an event which was the more to be regretted, because some of his successors were far from manifesting the same

degree of enthusiasm and industry. *Vallot*, however, energetically aided by *Fagon*, who travelled at his own expence in various provinces of France, and remitted the fruits of his botanical researches to the Garden, contributed to augment the catalogue to 4000 species and varieties. *Colbert*, who new-modelled the plan of management, and procured fixed salaries for the professors, should also be regarded as one of the early promoters of the establishment; while the celebrity of *Duverney* as a teacher of anatomy, and of *Tournefort* as professor of botany, attracted a great number of pupils. The latter, who died in 1708, bequeathed to the Garden his collections in natural history, and his herbarium; to which was afterward added *Vaillant's* very extensive collection of dried plants. It is also deserving of remark that *Vaillant*, in 1716, publicly asserted and demonstrated the sexuality and fructification of plants, a circumstance which has been too often overlooked.

Tournefort was succeeded in the botanical chair by *Anthony de Jussieu*; whose name, and those of his two brothers and his nephew, have been identified with the history of their favorite science. *Geoffroy* and *Lemery* ably filled the chairs of chemistry and pharmacy, and *Aubriet* acquired distinguished reputation by his drawings of plants and animals. *Poiret*, although he survived his appointment of superintendant only three years, added considerably to the public collections, and extended the number of cultivated species: but *Chirac*, his successor, unfortunately allowed the garden to languish, notwithstanding the strenuous exertions of *Bernard de Jussieu* to prop its reputation. *Du Fay*, whose attention was distracted by no other avocations, proved a more worthy administrator; and, from his time, 1732, the melioration of the establishment has, with a few trivial exceptions, been progressive. Aware, however, of his approaching dissolution, in 1739, he requested of the Minister that *Buffon*, who subsequently held such a conspicuous rank in the department of natural history, might be named his successor; and no individual of his day was, perhaps, better qualified for the office. Under his auspices, accordingly, both the collections and the garden may be said to have been re-organized; and, by associating in the more minute details of his labors the able services of his friend *Daubenton*, he eminently contributed to promote the usefulness of his arrangements, and to impart greater accuracy to his celebrated publication. By means of his widely diffused correspondence, the stores of animal and vegetable specimens received almost daily augmentation; and the activity and zeal of the *De Jussieus* powerfully co-operated with his

his views in giving a fresh impulse to the study of botany. — *Rouelle*, an enthusiastic disciple of *Stahl*, inspired his pupils with a keen relish of chemical pursuits; while *Winzlow*, though now advanced in years, conducted with distinguished applause the demonstrations of anatomy.

‘ In proportion as the site was enlarged, and the objects which it already contained were so arranged as to attract the public attention, more value was attached to the collections, and that of the King’s garden acquired celebrity. Then many individuals presented to the cabinet such articles as they were better pleased to see there, with the names of the donors annexed, than to possess at home: learned societies conceived that they contributed to the progress of knowledge by enriching a public repository; and sovereigns, desirous of paying an agreeable compliment to the King, transmitted to his cabinet such duplicates as were to be found in their own.

‘ Thus the Academy of Sciences, having acquired the anatomical collection of *Hunaud*, transmitted it to the Garden, that it might be incorporated with that of *Duverney*: the Count d’*Angiviller* offered to *Buffon* his own cabinet: the missionaries settled in China forwarded to France all the rarities which they could procure in a country which they only were permitted to traverse; and, finally, the Empress of Russia, when she could not prevail on *Buffon* to undertake a journey to St. Petersburg, invited his son to her court: presenting him, on his return, with some animals belonging to the north which were wanting in the cabinet, besides various articles of natural history, collected in her own estates.

‘ Nor was the government remiss in its efforts to increase the treasures of a monument which redounded to the national glory; for extraordinary funds were added to those which had been destined to its maintenance, and were placed wholly at the disposal of *M. Daubenton*, that he might procure objects either interesting on account of their rarity, or useful for the purposes of study: even trees were conveyed from a distance. Moreover, the cabinet was enriched by the zoological collection which *Sonnerat* had made in India, by that which *Commerson* had realized in his voyage round the world with *Bougainville*, and, lastly, by that which *Dombey* had brought from Peru and Chili.’

The author of this history, however, candidly admits that *Buffon*’s disregard of methodical arrangement deprived the student of much benefit, which has latterly accrued from a systematic distribution of the numerous contents of the Museum. Yet it will ever reflect honor on that illustrious naturalist, that, in the space of sixteen years, he completed the execution of the splendid schemes which he had conceived for the improvement of the repository committed to his care; and that he recommended to ostensible situations connected with it such men as *Daubenton*, *La Cépède*, *Faujas*

de Saint-Fond, &c. The botanical professors and demonstrators, too, as the *De Justis*, *Loménier*, *Thouin*, and *Desfontaines*, have spread a bright lustre on the interesting provinces of study over which they presided; but we cannot enter into the history of their respective allotments of public teaching and herbarizing. To *Buffon*, the merit is due, likewise, of introducing *Fourcroy* as professor of chemistry, and of thus giving more extensive circulation to the doctrines of *Lavoisier*. The hall in which *Fourcroy* delivered his lectures, was more than once enlarged; and among his pupils were selected many people of fashion, as also young men maintained at the expence of foreign princes to collect the substance of his instructions for the benefit of their respective countries.

On the demise of *Buffon*, M. *Labillardiere* and St. *Barthelemy* were successively nominated to the superintendence of the Royal Garden: but, in the midst of its prosperity, the whole establishment had been nearly swept away by the blast of revolutionary fury. It was, however, preserved, chiefly by the address of *Lakanal*, who happened to be President of the Committee for Public Instruction, and possessed of considerable influence. — Being now considered as a national institution, it was, under the designation of the *Museum of Natural History*, entirely new-modelled, and the management of its affairs was delegated to the following office-bearers: *Dalman*, keeper of the Museum, and professor of mineralogy; *Fourcroy*, professor of chemistry; *Brongniart*, demonstrator of chemistry; *Desfontaines*, professor of botany; *Jussieu*, demonstrator; *Portal*, professor of anatomy; *Mértrud*, demonstrator; *Lamarck*, botanist of the cabinet, and keeper of the herbaria; *Faujas de Saint-Fond*, joint keeper and conductor of the correspondence; *Geoffroy*, under keeper and under demonstrator, in the zoological department; *Vanhauten*, painter; and *Thouin*, chief gardener. *Faujas* was soon afterward nominated professor of geology; and *Lamarck*, professor of the natural history of invertebrated animals. Other appointments gradually took place; the managerie of Versailles was transferred to the Museum, early in 1794; and towards the close of the same year, the new arrangements were completed. Public funds, however, were occasionally wanting to carry into effect all the projected improvements; so that, while in some departments the greatest bustle and activity were apparent, in others every thing seemed to languish in neglect. The amphitheatre, conservatory, and other buildings, were finally constructed on a liberal scale, and suitable accommodation was prepared for the numerous living plants, &c. procured with so much care, by *Capt. Baudin*, and

the naturalists who accompanied him, for the Stadtholder's cabinet, and for various other collections.

Provoked with the contentions of Napoleon, and of Chapuis, Minister of the Interior, the concerns of this national repository revived and flourished; the premises having been considerably extended, and the collections greatly increased. At the suggestion of Fourcroy, the professors held weekly meetings, to arrange the subjects and order of the papers which they prepared for publication; and the result of which was that series of *Annals* and *Memoirs* of the Museum, which we have noticed from time to time as the volumes reached us. To the accumulated treasures of the Museum were now added the cabinet of fossil-bones, collected by Cuvier in the course of his interesting researches; the magnificent herbarium of *Flacourt* and *Bompland*; the very valuable mineralogical cabinet of *Weiss*; and other donations, or acquisitions, too numerous to enumerate.

In 1813, the pressure on the public finances, and the distractions of the government, were directly felt by the professors of the Museum, whose exertions were suddenly cramped, or arrested.

When, in 1814, the foreign troops entered Paris, a Prussian corps appeared before the gates of the Museum, where it intended to bivouac: the danger was imminent; and, in this moment of confusion, the professors had no means of access to the principal authorities. The commanding officer of the company could not yield to their expostulations, and desert the post assigned to him; but he consented to a delay of two hours, and that time sufficed to free us from all apprehension. An illustrious man of science, whose name does honor alike to Prussia, his native country, and to France, which he has selected for the publication of his works, availing himself of his facility of approach to the Prussian commander-in-chief, obtained from him a safeguard for the establishment. The Museum was exempted from all quartering of soldiers; and, although nobody was denied admission, no injury was sustained. The Emperors of Austria and Russia, and the King of Prussia, came to admire the riches which it contained, and to procure information relative to its arrangements, in the contemplation of similar establishments in their own dominions.

On a second visit of the allied troops to the capital of France, in the year following, serious alarms were again entertained for the dilapidation of the specimens, and the restitution of such portions of them as had been acquired in the course of conquest: but the only claim preferred was for the Stadtholder's cabinet; and M. *Brugman*, who was empowered to receive and send it off, acceded to an equitable compromise. The Emperor of Austria repeatedly visited the

Museum, sent his gardener to Paris with plants which were wanting in the King's garden, and made a present to the latter of two curious collections; namely, one of intestinal worms, prepared by *Bremier*; and the other, a very complete imitation of mushrooms, in wax. He moreover directed a catalogue of duplicate specimens of his repositories to be transmitted to the curators of the Museum, that they might select such as they wanted, and furnish him with others in exchange: an arrangement mutually beneficial.

Louis XVIII. and his government have also bestowed their patronage on the Royal Garden and Museum; for they have not only allotted a considerable sum for the construction of new apartments, but have despatched naturalists to different quarters of the globe. 'Already,' says M. DELEUZE, 'we have received very considerable transmissions from Calcutta and Sumatra, by MM. *Diard* and *Duvaucel*; from Pondicherry and Chandernagor, by M. *Leschenault*; from Brazil, by M. *Augustus Saint Hilaire*; from North America, by M. *Milbert*; and M. *de Lalande*, who had repaired to the Cape of Good Hope, and had penetrated a great way into the country, has put us in possession of the most numerous zoological collection which has reached us since that of *Peron*.' Various other voyagers and travellers, although not charged with any special commission, have testified their zeal for the promotion of the institution by presenting to it specimens more or less numerous and precious; and an annual fund, also, has been granted by government for the education and equipment of travelling pupils, of whose future services the public may reasonably indulge the highest expectations. About two thousand individuals attend one or more of the public courses of teaching, including several young ladies, who sedulously apply to botany and iconography.

Since the death of *Buffon* to the present period, although some useless appointments have been abolished, the ground belonging to the establishment has been extended from 43 to 79 acres; the galleries of natural history have been enlarged; a library containing 12,000 volumes has been acquired; dwelling-houses have been provided for the professors, their assistants, and other officers; apartments have been fitted up for the living animals; and the collections have been greatly multiplied and augmented.

From the remainder of the volume before us, (for we have received only the first,) which is wholly descriptive, we must be satisfied to select a few notices of some of the more prominent objects. In the compartment of trees which vegetate in the open air, are a *Gleditsia*, imported from Canada in

1748, and which is one of the largest in the plantation; the first *Acacia* that was brought from America, by Robin, in 1685, &c. A solitary *Juniperus excelsa*, brought from the Levant, and planted by Tournesfort, now measures 40 feet in height, and 1.5 feet to the origin of the branches. Among the evergreens, are tall *Epiceas*, Jerusalem pines, red cedars, *Quercus ballota*, &c. As specimens of rare autumnal ornaments, or singularities, we may mention *Juglans olivæformis*, *Mespilus linearis*, and *Acer eriocarpon*. The summer-division includes Carolina ash-trees, the black walnut-tree of Virginia, *Gymnocladus Canadensis*, and various other interesting specimens. The spring compartment contains the yellow *Pavia*, *Pavia* of the Ohio, the red-flowering horse-chesnut, Chinese quince, *Malus coronaria*, *M. spectabilis*, &c. In the basin destined to aquatic plants, are observed *Saururus cernuus*, and *Jussiaea grandiflora*, both from North America. In the orangery, are fine *Yuccas*, the large-flowering *Magnolia*, *Cucurbita*, and *Phormium tenax*: of which last the natives of New Holland make ropes and stuffs. The late Faujas de Saint-Fond reared it with success in his garden, near Montalimar; and it is cultivated on the sea-shores of the south of France, where it proves a valuable acquisition for the navy: cordage made of the fibres of its leaves having double the strength of that which is made from hemp. In the *Labyrinth* is the first cedar of Lebanon that was brought to France, and which was presented by our countryman Collinson to Bernard de Jussieu, in 1734. It now regularly ripens its cones, and, though of very considerable dimensions, would have been much taller, had not its top been broken by an accident.

Half-way down the hill, on the eastern side, between the kiosque and the cedar, is a small inclosure, formed by a trellis, which encompasses the tomb of Daubenton. That patriarch of natural history having died at the Museum, on the 31st of December, 1799, it was judged proper to preserve his ashes in the place where he had passed his life, and to which he had rendered such signal services. A column, erected on various minerals, surrounded by flowers which are carefully renewed, indicates this memorial; and it is proposed to place on this column a marble bust of the deceased.

Near the gates of the amphitheatre, two fan Palms, which were presented to Louis XIV. by the Margrave of Baden Dourlach, have now attained to 25 feet in height.

The numerous inclosures attached to the menagerie are adapted to the exigencies of the respective species admitted into them; and the manufactures, carried on in the several

compartments, have a reference to the origin of the materials. The adjoining trees, which are all labelled, are in a very thriving condition, and many of them are natives of North America: but the paper Mulberry-tree was brought from Otaheite by Sir Joseph Banks. — The number of vegetable species cultivated in the garden amounts to 6500, which are all distributed with a view to the accommodation of the pupils. So complete, in particular, is the scheme of labelling and notation, that a person may learn, by a glance of the eye, to what class, genus, and species, any individual plant belongs; whether it be used in medicine, domestic economy, or the arts; and whether it be deleterious, ornamental, &c. In this way, much superfluous trouble is spared to all parties.

The fruit-trees amount to eleven hundred species, arranged according to their analogies; those which bear berries, for example, forming one division; those which bear fruits constituting another, &c. This part of the garden, denominated the *School of Fruit-trees*, yearly receives interesting additions, and has already shared its stores with Ghent, Strasburg, and Vienna, where similar schools have been instituted. The curious visitor of this plantation will be intriqued with the sight of fine specimens of *Eucalyptus kuta*, *Mespilus Japonica*, the Monterey Pine of California, the Mount Sinai Pear-tree, &c. &c. In the *School of Economical Plants*, the arrangement is regulated by the useful properties of the plants; the first great division comprizing those which supply food to man; the second, those which are subservient to the maintenance of cattle; the third, those which are employed in the arts; and each of these is subdivided into various sections. In proportion as the seeds ripen, they are gathered, to be distributed, and annually fill 20,000 bags; the label of each of which exhibits not only the name of the plant but the season of sowing, the soil most suited to its growth, and its principal uses.

The *School of Culture*, though too contracted in space, is judiciously distributed for the illustration of the practical and experimental details of horticulture and farming; the first general division having reference to the various modes of raising vegetables; the second, to the means of their preservation; the third, to their multiplication; and the fourth, to their uses. The reiterated experiments on grafting, which have been instituted in the seminary, have uniformly proved that trees which have no common affinities cannot be grafted on one another with any prospect of success; and that, consequently, all that has been written, from the days of Columella

mella downwards, relative to hybrid fruits obtained by incogmate alliance, is distinct of foundation.

Of the *Seeds Garden*, M. Delessert remarks, that it is the nursery in which is produced the destined supply for all the other parts, and in which our vegetable riches are multiplied and renewed. Viewed, however, in connection with science, it presents an appropriate advantage that is to be found in no other situation; for it is there, and there alone, that we can make methodical and continuous observations on the germination of seeds, and that we can compare plants in the first stages of their development. Mirbel, accordingly, availed himself of such a favorable theatre for conducting his observations and experiments on the evolution of seeds, and their characteristic distinctions.

The *Naturalizing Garden* contains, among other fine exhibitions, the *Ephedra altissima*, brought from Barbary by Delphinus; and the *Lagerstrœmia Indica*, so conspicuous for the beauty of its flowers.

With regard to the stoves and conservatories, they appear to be constructed on a less ample scale than that which would be suitable to the other departments of the Royal Garden; but the author's descriptions of them conduct him to some useful remarks. The following, in particular, is well deserving of attention.

We have heard frequent mention of *acclimating* the trees of hot countries, by gradually habituating them to a colder temperature; but all that can be obtained in this way is confined within very narrow limits. A tree which perishes under six degrees of cold, in its native country, will never be brought to endure one with us. The orange, olive, and fig-tree, have been cultivated in France for ages; yet they do not resist a rigorous season, and almost all the orange and olive-trees in Provence died in the winter of 1820.

Such trees as would not at first succeed with us, and which we may nevertheless expect to naturalize, are those which do not support our winters, because their sap begins to flow in autumn, and they put forth their blossoms in the winter-months. Thus, the *Banksia*, *Banksia*, and *Casuarina*, grow in Van Diemen's Land, where the cold equals that of France: but they flower during the months of January, February, March, and April, which correspond to the summer and autumn of their native country. The specimens, therefore, which we import, retain the same habit, observe the same periods for unfolding their vegetation, and are killed by the frost. Still, by cultivating them in a large conservatory, we may procure from them fertile seeds, which, sown at a favorable season, produce individuals; the sap of some of which begins to circulate in spring; and such may, without apprehension, be cultivated in the open air. This change

does

does not always take place in the first generation: but, by continuing to multiply them by seed, we may anticipate success.'

The *Dahlia*, *Melaleuca*, &c. furnish similar examples.

In the hot-houses are included many vegetable rarities, particularly *Pandanus odoratissimus*, *Caryota urens*, *Typha flamentosa*, *Eugenia jambos*, *Brucea ferruginea*, *Sterculia foetida*, *Ficus elastica*, and *P. macrophylla*. 'This last recalls the memory of Riedlé, the gardener; who, of all our voyagers, procured for the Museum the greatest number of living plants; and who attached so much value to this tree, that, in his dying moments, he entreated his fellow-voyagers to neglect nothing for its preservation, so that it might reach the Museum-garden in good condition.' We may also remark *Passiflora quadrangularis*, and *P. princeps*, both distinguished by the largeness and elegance of their flowers; which are solitary, and finely variegated in the first, but red and disposed in long clusters in the second. The stalks of the *quadrangularis* will shoot to the length of fifty feet in one year; a singular instance of vegetative energy. *Carolinea princeps*, and *C. insignis*, excite attention by the uncommon largeness of their digitated leaves, and of their flowers; which are ten inches in diameter, and contain a multitude of stamens. The only specimen of *Adansonia baobab* is still young, but vigorous. In its native soil, it attains to 25 or 30 feet in diameter; and, in the opinion of the naturalist whose name it bears, it may live 4000 years!

The botanical halls and galleries are richly furnished with specimens of the different parts of the vegetable structure, of peculiarities of organization, and of varieties of wood from all quarters of the world; with collections of fruits preserved in spirits of wine, and an unparalleled assortment of herbaria.

Having thus slightly touched on the multiform contents of this interesting volume, it remains for us to state that it is composed in a plain, unpretending style; and that it promises, in its complete form, to furnish a most desirable guide to such residents at Paris as may wish to visit, for their instruction, one of the proudest monuments which any age or country has erected to natural science. The work is also handsomely sent forth, both as to paper and as to typography; and, in drawing it up, the author received very important assistance from some of the most eminent professors attached to the establishment. He appears to have executed his task with an unvarying reference to the design of his employers, who were desirous of presenting to the public a summary sketch of the formation and contents of the Museum and its appendages.

ART.

ART. II. *Les Conseils du Trone, &c.; i. e. Frederick's Advice from the Throne; edited by P. R. Auguis.*

[Article concluded from the last Appendix, p. 497.]

A CURIOUS and instructive anecdote is here told of Peter the Great and Frederick the *first* King of Prussia, father of Frederick-William, illustrating the omnipotence of the Czar in his own dominions, and the omnipotent notions which he carried with him into those of others. Intending to travel through some of the principal states of Europe, he came to Berlin; and immediately on his arrival, almost before the first complimentary ceremonials had passed, "My dear brother," said the Russian monarch, "I am travelling for instruction; a sort of savage, knowing nothing, and having every thing to learn, I must lay every body under contribution to furnish me with information. Time is precious, I have none to lose, and my stay at Berlin will be very short: I must beg of you, therefore, to let me see how certain things are managed in Europe which are very clumsily done with me; and to begin with a very necessary operation, have the goodness to order somebody to be hanged to-morrow, that I may see how your executioners go to work." Frederick, equally surprized and embarrassed at the request, replied that he would immediately make inquiries at the public tribunals whether any criminal was under sentence of death. "What," said Peter, "are not you master, and cannot you order any one to be hanged whom you please?" — "We are within the circles of the empire," replied Frederick, "and the empire has laws to which we are obliged to submit." "Well, then, take one of my Mongicks and hang him — take which you like." — "But the laws of the empire apply equally to strangers and to our own subjects." — "You are *not* king, then? You are *not* master?" — "Sovereigns possess their sovereignty within the empire as elsewhere, but it is in conformity with the laws." — Peter had considerable difficulty in yielding to this sort of doctrine, and was not very well pleased with the state of monarchy at Berlin.

Thus, then, Mr. Owen was right when, at some meeting held to consider the best means of improving the condition of the Irish, he took great pains to impress on his auditory that the character of man is formed by the circumstances around him; but, though he stated the truth, he did not state the whole truth. Man is indeed very much the creature of circumstances: but it should be added that those very circumstances, from which he derives so much of his character, are themselves created by man. It is he who builds the pedestal, places

place some demi-deity of his own workmanship on a throne, and then rolls himself in the dust in adoration of the figure? If the character of Man be influenced by the moral circumstances of government, religion, education, &c. who is it that fixes the form and ceremonial of these matters? Who gave to the Czar Peter his autocracy? Who made him

— “a despot absolute, to howl forth as himself the only freeman of his land?”

Who is it that invests princes, priests, and pedagogues with the authority which they exercise to our advantage, of which they abuse to our degradation and destruction? It may be true that the circumstances in which czars and emperors are placed create their generic character: but those circumstances, we must repeat, are formed by others, not themselves. When the people have delegated to certain individuals the right of governing them, they have deposited in their hands the greatest imaginable trust; and they have invariably found that to resume this trust, howsoever the resumption of it may be required by any wantonness of abuse on the part of the trustees, is a work of the utmost difficulty and peril. In delegating authority, how careful, then, should they be to obtain the most solid security for a discreet, faithful, and responsible exercise of it!

Such reflections naturally arise not only from the above anecdote of Peter the Great, but from a contemplation of the personal and political character of Frederick the Second, as exhibited by himself in the *Matinées* of which we gave an account in our former article; and from several anecdotes which are furnished by the editor of the present volume in his sketch of that monarch's life.

The personal character of Frederick the Great was very different from that of his father, Frederick-William. Thanks to the affectionate reverence and filial piety of his children, Frederick, and the Princess de Bareith, who have exposed their father's character in all its naked enormity, — in all its varieties of caprice, debauchery, and domestic ferociousness, — the world has very little more to learn concerning that barbarian: but the anecdotes that are told of him are not without their use; and, for the most part, they exhibit a degree of brutality which would always be engendered by similar circumstances on a similar disposition. Here is presented to us, therefore, not indeed an excuse for but an explanation of the personal freaks and irregularities of princes; which, on that account, ought not to be regarded by their subjects with too severe and resentful an eye. We should treat such

personages as Matthew Prior recommends us to treat our wives,

Be to their faults a little blind,
And to their virtues very kind."

We elevate them to the rank of gods, put thunder and lightning into their hands, and then complain if we happen to be struck with the bolt which in some mad moment they may dart on us! — It is amusing to see people become the dupes of their own adulation and folly. Frederick William took a fancy to employ an hour or two after dinner in beamerising canvas with colors, and was soon made to believe himself a first-rate artist by the flattery of his courtiers. To one of these smiling sycophants, who had been very lavish in extolling the genius of his royal master, as displayed on some new piece, he said, "How much do you think it would fetch if it were now put up to sale?" — "Sir," replied the courtier, "at a hundred ducats it would be as cheap as dirt — positively given away." — "Then you shall take it at fifty," rejoined the monarch: "I see you are an excellent judge of painting, and I am happy in this opportunity of conferring a favor on you." The self-tricked parasite was obliged to buy the worthless daub at fifty ducats, and doubtless learned more circumspection in the praises which he bestowed on the future productions of his master.

This monarch would not only honor the nuptials of any inferior officer of the army with his presence, whenever he was requested, but would make his Queen accompany him, and open the ball with the bridegroom. At the marriage of a humble lieutenant of the guards, her Majesty conceived that her dignity would be less compromised by dancing a Polonese than by dancing a minuet. The lieutenant, who was a little tipsy and very boisterous, made her jump and skip, and whirled her Majesty about with such force and velocity, says *Baron de Polnitz*, that she looked like a bar-maid at a village fête, and the King, seeing her petticoats fly up in the air without having time to fall down again, was ready to split his sides with laughter at a spectacle exactly suited to his taste. He was a king in his own house as well as abroad, and would kick and cuff his wife and children when they displeased him, without the least scruple. The Queen once sent privately for a French hair-dresser to exercise his taste and skill on her locks and those of her daughters; but, as soon as the King discovered what had been done, he threatened the perruquier with his vengeance, and in the presence of the court, made him shave the heads of the young ladies. "That

"That I do not serve you in the same manner, Madame," said he to the Queen, "is not on your own account, but it would not be agreeable to myself to have a bed-fellow with a shorn head." — Occasionally, a gleam of retributive justice shot across his mind; and he kept the Judges of the land in order by the terror of his cane, which he is said to have applied to their shoulders in a very *striking* manner, on one occasion, when he thought that they had pronounced an unjust decision. * At Stettin, also, he once ordered a young man whom he had employed on some business to be publicly whipped: but, on discovering afterward that the sufferer was innocent, he not only confessed publicly the injury that he had committed, but invited the young man to his table. — It is well known that this monarch had a great inclination to breed a race of military giants in his states, and for this purpose took every opportunity of marrying his tall guards to the largest women whom he could find. As he was once going from Potsdam to Berlin, his eyes were attracted by a young woman of prodigious stature, but exceedingly well made and handsome. He called her to him, and learned from her that she was a Saxon girl, unmarried, that business had brought her to Berlin, and that she was on the point of returning to her native village. "In that case," said he, "you must go directly past the gate of Potsdam; and if I give you a letter for the commandant, you can deliver it without going out of your way. Take charge of one which I will write, then, and promise me that you will deliver it yourself to the commandant, and you shall have a crown for your trouble." The girl, who was well acquainted with the King's character, promised that she would; and the letter was accordingly written, sealed, and delivered into her hands, together with the crown-piece. Suspecting, however, the fate that awaited her at Potsdam, she did not choose to enter the town: but, happening to see a poor, little, old woman near the gate, she gave her the letter and the crown, and desired her to carry it immediately to the commandant, as it came from the King, and was on very urgent and important business. The sly Saxon heroine kept on the outside of the walls, and pursued her route homewards with the utmost expedition. The little old woman also trudged along

* Frederick once did the same. He sent three magistrates to Spandau who had oppressed a poor man in order to gratify a rich one, kicking them out of his room with his jack-boots on. His chancellor, Baron *de Fürst*, being implicated in the decision, the King dismissed him from his situation, and told him that he might go to the devil. The anecdote is related at length, p. 144, *et seq.*

as fast as she could limp, and delivered her letter. On opening it, the commandant found it to contain a peremptory order from his royal master to have the *bearer* married immediately to one of his grenadiers, mentioning the individual by name. The poor old soul was perfectly astounded, but *she* was ready to submit with a very good grace to the orders of the King. Not exactly so the grenadier: though threats, authority, and promises, were lavishly employed in order to overcome his extreme repugnance, and to assuage the despair into which he was thrown. It was not until the following day that the King heard of the trick which had been played on him, and of the inconsolable distress of the soldier; when he resorted to the only remedy left, and emancipated the bridegroom by dissolving the marriage.*

We have seen, in the former part of this article, that it was a *professed system* of Frederick II. to appropriate to himself

* Frederick-William sometimes got into difficulties by employing his Prussians to enlist soldiers for him in foreign countries, and even to take them by force out of the territories of other princes. His agents having thus carried off a number of tall men out of the electorate of Hanover, George II., who had succeeded to the throne of Great Britain, was so offended at the measure, that it nearly occasioned a war between Hanover and Prussia. By the command of his Britannic Majesty, some Prussian subaltern officers and soldiers were arrested in Hanover by way of reprisal, manifestoes were published on both sides, and troops were assembled: but the affair was accommodated by the interposition of other powers, without coming to extremities. A great personal animosity, however, subsisted ever afterward between these two monarchs; and Baron *Bisfeld*, in his "*Letters*," says that the quarrel between them had arisen so high that, after the example of Charles V. and Francis I., they had determined to decide it by single combat. The King of England had fixed on Brigadier Sutton for his second, his Prussian Majesty had chosen Colonel *Derschau*, and the territory of Hildersheim was appointed for the rendezvous. George was then at Hanover, and Frederick-William had already arrived at Saltz dahl, near Brunswick. Baron *von Borok*, who had been the Prussian minister at London, and had been dismissed from court in a very ungracious manner, arriving at Saltz dahl, found his master in a most violent rage, and, knowing how useless it would be to oppose him in that mood, affected to approve the choice of a single combat, and even offered his service to carry the challenge. He manoeuvred so well, however, as to gain time; and the ministers on both sides being desirous to assuage the wrath of the two kings, it was so far effected that the challenge was not sent. Frederick, in his "*Mémoires de Brandebourg*," mentions the animosity which subsisted between his father and uncle. (See *Towers's Memoirs of Frederick*, vol. i. ch. 1.) *Rev.*

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the merit of any successful military enterprize, and, when the issue was unfortunate, to lay all the blame on his Generals, even though he was conscious that the fault was his own. In cold blood, too, he recommends this system to his successor. Yet, the campaign of 1744 being disastrous to the Prussians, he acknowledges this fact in his "Military Instructions," and takes the full share of disgrace on himself. So, having gained a complete victory over the Austrians at Sohr, in his account of it he says, very honestly, "I should have been beaten, as I deserved, if the abilities of my Generals and the intrepidity of my troops had not saved me from that misfortune." *Zieten* was one of the best Generals whom Frederick had in his service, — and one of the best of men. In the campaign of 1745, Silesia was again made the theatre of war. *Zieten* was there employed on a very delicate and perilous business: his regiment was with the King's main army, between Patzkau and Frankenstein: the Margrave Charles covered Upper Silesia, and occupied Jägerndorf and Troppan. The Austrians took advantage of this inconsiderate division of the army, and, separating into two parties, one encamped between the King and the Margrave, and occupied all the posts of communication; while the other, encamping along the bank of the Oder, environed the latter. Frederick, seeing himself on the verge of a general engagement, resolved to recall the Margrave: but the Austrians had guarded every avenue, and were so vigilant that even couriers, chasseurs, and spies, were immediately taken. The difficulty of communicating his orders seemed almost insuperable. *Zieten*, however, was selected to execute this daring enterprise; an attempt of so much peril in the eyes of Frederick himself, that, in his instructions to the General, he desired him to proclaim the order to the whole regiment, that, in case they should not be able to make their way, sword in hand, through the Austrian posts, *each hussar that escaped* might inform the Margrave of his Majesty's intentions. The unparalleled boldness of the stratagem which *Zieten* adopted, — for to force his way through the enemy was clearly impossible, — was crowned with the success which it deserved. During the course of the preceding campaign, and even during the winter-excursion in Upper Silesia, his regiment had worn their summer-dress, which consisted of red mantles and felt caps, and their fur-accountrements had not arrived from Berlin until the campaign had closed; hence the Austrians were not as yet acquainted with that part of their regimentals, which greatly resembled those that were worn by the hussars of Spleng, at this time making a part of the division posted

at

at Leobschütz. *Zieten*, who was aware of this latter circumstance, founded on it his hopes of deceiving the enemy by making his own hussars pass for theirs, and leading his Prussians in broad day-light through their army. He accordingly marched with affected carelessness and unconcern through the enemy's camp, followed one of their columns under the appearance of forming a portion of it, and made a Colonel prisoner of war in the centre of his own camp, who, mistaking him for an Austrian, had come to inform him that his dragoons were close behind! The alarm was now given, but it was too late; and *Zieten*, with inconsiderable loss, reached Jägerndorf, where he entered in triumph, and was received by the Margrave with the joy and admiration due to his courage and good fortune. The Margrave immediately broke up his camp, and with the assistance of *Zieten* effected a junction with the King's army, notwithstanding that the Austrians made a variety of desperate and well-concerted attempts to intercept them. After this junction, the whole army was eager to engage the Austrians; and Frederick, not suffering their impatience to subside, gained a terrible and bloody victory over the enemy on the 4th of June, 1745, at *Hohen-Friedberg*.* *Bapton Trenck*, who was present at this battle and wounded in it, (see his Life, vol. i. p. 58.) says that when the action commenced, Frederick exclaimed to his guards, "Prove to-day, my lads, that you are my body-guard, and give no Saxon quarter." The sanguinary behaviour of the Prussians on that day shewed how implicitly they obeyed their master's instructions. More than four thousand Austrians and Saxons were left killed and wounded on the field of battle, and more than seven thousand were made prisoners. This was a most important victory to Frederick; and in his "History of his own Times" he observes, "This was the third, but not the last battle fought to decide to whom *Silesia* appertained: when sovereigns play for provinces, the lives of men are but as counters." A memorable remark, and true to the very letter!

The treaty of Dresden was signed December 25. 1745, and *Zieten* then retired to his country-seat, where he was neglected, and felt himself degraded in the eyes of an ungrateful sovereign. He was supplanted by General *de Winterfeld*, who became a high favorite of the King, and the most formidable enemy that *Zieten* ever experienced. He knew that

* See Buresford's translation of *Madame de Blumenthal's* "Life of General de Zieten:" also Dr. *Towers's* *Memoirs of Frederick*, vol. i. p. 250.

he had been calumniated, felt that his services were undervalued, and proudly scorned to bend the knee or solicit an explanation. The Seven Years' War began in 1756: but it was not till Frederick saw the political horizon of Prussia again begin to darken, and those vast preparations for hostility making which threatened his kingdom with destruction, that he remembered *Zieten*. The great Frederick could listen to the idle slanders of envious flatterers, but in the day of trouble was not ashamed to court the man who had won his battles, and contributed to that period of prosperity during which he had the baseness to slight and depreciate him. An impending war brought the monarch to a sense of his ingratitude, and he made every possible advance to reconcile the offended warrior: but the steps which he took at first were not adapted to conciliate such a man as *Zieten*; and his kind inquiries after the shattered health of his General were thrown away. Frederick was so imprudent as to employ *De Winterfeld*, the man who had done *Zieten* so much injury, to conciliate him: but he was received with coolness and dismissed with dignity. *Zieten's* return to the service, however, was necessary to Frederick, and he resolved to call on him himself, and alone. At first, the King attempted to make him *acknowledge his faults*, and closed his harangue with a promise of forgetting every thing that had passed, holding out his hand in token of reconciliation. *Zieten*, however, receded, scorning to acknowledge faults of which he had not been guilty; and the moment of reconciliation seemed more distant than ever, says *Madame Blumenthal*, when the good genius of Prussia prompted the King with these words: "No, it cannot be possible that *Zieten*, my faithful General, can, on the approach of a perilous war, abandon his king and country, whose confidence he entirely possesses." These few words triumphed over the firmness of *Zieten*, and found the way to his heart: he threw himself at the monarch's feet, and vowed to shed the last drop of his blood in his service. Before the opening of the campaign, Frederick promoted him to higher rank, and the reconciliation produced a *sincere* friendship between him and this officer, which never abated to the hour of *Zieten's* death.

Having told the story thus far not much to the credit of the King, justice requires that the conclusion of it should not be suppressed. Frederick, at the age of seventy, would often pay an unexpected visit to his General, then fourscore years old. In December, 1785, the King had returned to Berlin in bad health; and *Zieten*, then eighty-six, who had not seen him for some months, went to the palace to pay his respects.

respects. As soon as Frederick saw him, "what, my good old Zieten, are you here?" said his Majesty. "How sorry am I that you have had the trouble of walking up this staircase: I should have called on you myself. How have you been of late?"—"Sire," answered the veteran, "my health is not amiss, my appetite is good, but my strength! my strength!"—"This account makes me happy by halves only; but you must be tired—I shall have a chair for you." A chair was immediately brought. "Sit down, good father," continued his Majesty, "I will have it so, for I cannot allow you to be inconvenienced under my own roof." The old General obeyed, and Frederick the Great remained standing before him in the midst of a brilliant circle.—He at length took leave of him in these words, "Adieu, my dear Zieten!"—it was his last adieu:—"take care not to catch cold; nurse yourself well, and live as long as you can, that I may often have the pleasure of seeing you." After having said this, Frederick, instead of speaking to the other Generals, and walking through the saloons as usual, retired abruptly, and shut himself up in his closet. Zieten died in the same year, Frederick, who survived him but a few months, made a present to his widow of ten thousand dollars; and his successor raised a noble statue to the General's memory.

We are not undertaking a narrative of Frederick's life, or even a delineation of his character, except as he has given us the outline with his own hand in the flagitious principles laid down in the *Matinées*. The editor of the work has furnished us with several particulars concerning Frederick, to serve as a commentary on that production; and the anecdotes which we have drawn from other quarters are introduced for the same purpose. The King of Prussia made no scruple of sacrificing, cashiering, and even dishonoring his oldest and most respectable officers, without doing them the justice of permitting a court-martial to investigate their conduct. This was the case with General Zastrow, the governor of Schweidnitz, who was sent prisoner to Spandau for having yielded that fortress in 1761 to General *Laudohn*; although he had defended it with great gallantry, and, comparatively speaking, with a handful of men, for he had not a garrison sufficient to line the ramparts. He earnestly solicited a court-martial, but Frederick would not allow one: for, if he had, the fact would have come out that the King himself had weakened the garrison by drafting from it four thousand men, in consequence of

* We take this account from Mr. Beresford's translation of Madame *Blumenthal's* Life of Zieten.

which *Laudohn* was able to take it by a *coup de main*. *Zastrow* was therefore imprisoned and deprived of his regiment for a fault committed by the King. The Governor of Gratz, to whom he alludes in the sixth *Matinée*, was treated in a still more ungenerous manner on a similar occasion : for he was arrested and conveyed in a common waggon, escorted by two hussars, beyond the outposts of the army ; the King forbidding him, at the same time, on pain of death, ever to set foot again in his dominions. This officer had been originally a private soldier in the guards, and after forty years of service had risen by his merit to the rank of Major-general.

Frederick, like his father, William, was rigorously economical : his wars, indeed, had nearly ruined his finances, as he acknowledges ; and yet he carried them on with the most fraudulent economy, for he often paid his soldiers in base money, and pensioned off his civil and military officers with *six-feuën pieces which were never receivable again into any branch of the royal treasury.* (See p. 139.) The extreme vigilance, which was exercised over the financial concerns of his government, enabled him to replace the waste of human life which his wars had occasioned. Considering agriculture as the most certain means of increasing population, he encouraged it throughout the whole of his reign. He re-constructed many decayed and built many new villages by the side of rivers : several of which having, in former times, overflowed their banks and inundated the fertile lands, he contracted them by means of dykes, reclaimed a prodigious number of acres of excellent pasture which he distributed to cultivators, for the most part foreigners, and induced them to settle by grants of stock, as well as by long exemptions from taxes and from enlistment. During the latter months of his life, he was employed in draining and clearing the marsh of Dromling, which, from being an unwholesome and useless swamp, gave to agriculture a hundred and twenty thousand acres of cultivable land.

	Villages and Hamlets.	Families.
In the Electoral March of Brandeburg, he built	217	and established 10,740
In the New March	152	3,640
In Pomerania	90	5,312
In the countries of Magdeburg and Halberstadt	16	—
In Western Prussia	50	918
In the duchy of Silesia	—	14,050
	<hr/> 525 <hr/>	<hr/> 34,660 <hr/>

Here

Here are upwards of five hundred villages built by Frederick, and almost thirty-five thousand families, (at $4\frac{1}{2}$ to each, making 156,000 persons,) established on new territorial allotments; and two-thirds of these were foreigners. He was not less attentive to the encouragement of manufactures; having introduced a great many into his dominions, and advanced large sums of money at the low interest of one or two per cent. for a stipulated term, to those who engaged in them. These measures may not very well accord with certain principles of political economy now acknowledged: but the actual state of a country must always be taken into account in the application of any general principles; and by that actual state they must be contracted, extended, or modified. — Frederick also caused to be erected immense store-houses for corn in every province, for the subsistence of his army in time of war, and for his subjects in general during any period of scarcity. Obvious as the objections are against a government coming into the market as a monopolist of corn in the first instance, and as a retailer of it in the second, it happened that by these means the Prussian dominions, though not remarkable for fertility, suffered nothing themselves, but were even able to assist their neighbours, in the dreadful famine of 1772, the effects of which were so fatal in some of the most fruitful parts of Germany.

For the purpose of encouraging trade, Frederick exempted the inhabitants of Berlin and Potsdam from military services, and granted nearly the same indulgence to the inhabitants of the circles of the mountains in Silesia; where a vast number of poor and industrious weavers had settled themselves in a confined and barren district, and manufactured linen for exportation. The King was particularly desirous to encourage the manufacture of silk, and adopted every method to favor the culture of the mulberry; he considered that, in the three summer-months, it furnished employment and subsistence to a number of persons who were too young or too old for more laborious occupations; and during his reign, accordingly, this manufacture made a very rapid progress in Prussia. He also endeavored to introduce several English manufactories into his dominions: with which view he gave ten thousand crowns in the year 1784 for machines for carrying on the Manchester productions; and four thousand crowns, in the year following, towards establishing a manufactory of English earthenware at Königsberg. Count *Hertzberg* (in his "*Dissertation sur la véritable Richesse des Etats, &c.*," a work very freely used, without any acknowledgement, by the editor of the volume

before us *,) observes that, when the King ascended his throne in 1740, the whole population of his dominions amounted to 2,240,000; and if to this, says he, be added two millions for the population of Silesia, West Prussia, and East Friesland, (the three provinces which the King acquired,) and if these two millions be deducted from the sum total of six millions, there will remain, as increase of the population of the ancient provinces, the number of 1,770,000, which is nearly double the amount of the ancient population. If that of the new provinces be taken into account, the population was nearly trebled during the reign of Frederick.

It has sometimes been said that this monarch outlived himself, surviving the energy of his faculties and character: but how happy would most princes esteem themselves, says his biographer, to enjoy in the meridian of their lives the energy and spirit which he retained to the very last! He had been accustomed to receive his secretaries at six or seven o'clock in the morning: but, when increasing sickness, infirmity, and old age warned him seriously of his approaching death, he ordered them to attend on him in his cabinet at four o'clock. In announcing this change to them, he said, "My condition compels me to put you to this inconvenience, which, however, will not be of long duration; my life is declining, and I must make the most of the time which yet remains; *it belongs not to me, it belongs to the state.*" (P. 344.) Accordingly, every morning at four o'clock, when he had given audience to an adjutant, a hussar in waiting brought him all the reports of his ministers and generals, all the despatches from his ambassadors, and all the foreign letters which had arrived at Berlin in the course of the night. He examined them all, and made a selection, placing on one side those which he intended to read himself, and on the other those which he confided to his three secretaries to report to him. On receiving them, the secretaries retired to a separate apartment, perused the letters, and prepared short extracts from them, while the King was employed in reading the others. The secretaries were then called in, one after the other, each with a pencil in his hand. Frederick first communicated to them the purport of the letters which he had been reading, and they then gave an account of their letters, and read the extracts which they had made; the King then dictated his orders and his letters almost word for word. Thus, from four o'clock in the morning till six

* Dr. Towers has also quoted largely from this work, but he is always scrupulously faithful in referring to his authorities; — and his "*Memoirs of Frederick*" form a valuable publication.

or seven, did one feeble and sick man manage the affairs of a whole kingdom, and dispatch all business which related to foreign countries in the same time. The cabinet-secretaries then returned to their own houses at Potsdam, transcribed fairly the dictations of his Majesty, and brought the despatches back for his signature after dinner; Frederick making a point of reading himself every letter, and every order, before he would attach his signature to it. "I remember," says Count *Hertzberg*, "that a few days previous to his death, he prescribed to his aides-de-camp all the manœuvres that were to be performed at the reviews in Silesia, adverting to the minutest circumstances of locality; and he sent also for General *d'Anhalt*, to direct some military arrangements for raising free battalions to expedite the movement of the army in case of a war." He also sent for the ministers of state, *De Hoym* and *De Warber*, to settle with them some new plans for the cultivation of land, and the improvement of manufactures, which he proposed to have executed in 1787 in different provinces; and particularly to have new villages built, at his own expence, in all the districts where the husbandmen resided on plains of too great extent, and where the population appeared to be too scanty. On the 15th of August, 1786, he dictated and signed his despatches, as usual; and it was not till the 16th that he ceased to discharge the functions of a king and of a minister of state: but on that day he was entirely deprived of sense; and on the morning of the 17th he died, in the 75th year of his age, and the forty-seventh of his reign.

Frederick was a wit as well as a king; a poet as well as a philosopher; and a musician as well as a general. His talents, indeed, were of a high order; he had a taste for literature; and he courted the society of literary men, who flattered his vanity, and whom he bribed to trumpet forth his praises. Private individuals, however, and even princes, have possessed some, in various degrees, of these qualities and tastes, and perhaps all of them together, without obtaining that character for greatness which fell to the lot of Frederick. How happened this? He had a profound knowledge of the character and genius of the age in which he lived. This is the true solution of the enigma.

Frederick never attempted to impose crude and ill-digested institutions, or any which were unsuited to the spirit of the times. He knew what that spirit required, and satisfied it. Thus, while innumerable armies assailed him, the ascendant genius of public opinion covered him with its buckler. If his legions were defeated and dispersed, or his treasures drained, his tutelary genius created new legions for him and supplied new treasures. He

might have had still more splendid qualities than those which he possessed : but, if he had attempted to impose on the age institutions which it was not prepared to receive, all his labours would have been fruitless. He effected great things with little means, while with greater means Charles the Fifth could not succeed in little measures : it was only on the verge of the grave, and when he could not synchronize the motions of two pendulums, that he perceived the folly of attempting to force on the age ideas which it was indisposed to receive. Joseph II., endowed with great qualities, and inspired with an ardent love of public good, after having spent his life in the most painful and useless efforts, left Belgium in open insurrection, Hungary in discontent, and the whole monarchy menaced with approaching troubles.

Erroneous judgments are frequently entertained concerning Frederick the Great ; some persons imagining that his character would not have suited the times in which we live, while others maintain that he would have accomplished the greatest things in preserving the forms which he adopted. Both forget that in all ages the same elements constitute a great man, but that the first quality of superior genius is, not to endeavor to force our own views on the time in which we live, but to adapt our own views to those of the period. In the days of Gregory the Seventh, no Luther was to be found ; in those of Luther, it would have been impossible even for a Gregory the Seventh. to have repressed the Reformation. In establishing order through the public finances, in the encouragement of agriculture and manufactures, in the suppression of arbitrary imposts and of the exercise of petty tyranny over his people by subordinate officers, and in raising the peasant and workman above the condition of mere brutes, Frederick effected all that could be expected from him, and all that the spirit of the times would allow. Had he gone a step farther, he would have injured the existing edifice of social order. The wisdom of the statesman restrained the philosopher from carrying into execution all those projects which he had meditated in the retirement of his closet. A constitution, in which the people should participate in the management of public affairs, would, in his time, have been precocious.

How much things have changed for the better in these enlightened times ! Witness Italy, Portugal, and Spain !

Among the *opuscula* of Frederick which the present volume contains, we see nothing worthy of extended notice. The 'Theological Commentary of Don Calmet on Blue Beard' is a lively but profane *jeu d'esprit* ; the liveliness of it consisting in the mock gravity with which the royal writer has quizzed the ponderous lucubrations of that learned Benedictine. The 'Account of the Siege of Asoph by the Russians, and of the Journey of Peter the Great to Holland,' was found among the King's papers at Potsdam, and will be consulted with advantage by the historian of the times.

ART. III. *Applications de Géométrie, &c.; i. e. Applications of Geometry and Mechanics to Marine Constructions, Bridges, Roads, &c.* By CHARLES DUPIN, Member of the Institute of France, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 360. Paris. 1822.

THE name and reputation of M. DUPIN are both well known to the public. As a scientific traveller, and as an impartial historian and practical observer of the progressive improvements in the sciences and useful arts, he stands eminently conspicuous; and as a mathematician, although at present his labors in that department are not much known in this country, he occupies a rank equally respectable. The work which we now introduce to our readers is of considerable interest to naval, military, and civil engineers: but it is founded on a species of geometry (the descriptive) which is very little prosecuted among us. *Descriptive geometry* owes its birth to the inventive genius of *Monge*, and is perhaps capable of applications of which even its inventor had no adequate conception. As an élève of the polytechnic school, M. DUPIN had the advantage of studying under that able and distinguished philosopher; and he appears to have imbibed the pure geometrical spirit of his master, of whom, in his "*Essais sur les Services et les Travaux Scientifiques de Gaspard Monge*," he speaks in the highest terms of regard and respect.

M. DUPIN's first efforts in this department were made in five memoirs, intitled "*Développemens de Géométrie*," presented to the class of the Institute previously to his being elected a member of that learned body; and which were approved by the commissioners, MM. *Carnot*, *Monge*, and *Poisson*, who were appointed to examine and report on them. They were afterward published in a quarto volume under the above title; and the present work, which treats of the application of the principles established in the former, may be considered as a continuation of it, and both as constituting part of a series of which the "*Géométrie Descriptive et Analytique*" of *Monge* is the first term.

The subjects in the volume now before us may be divided under five distinct heads; viz. 1. On the Stability of floating Bodies; 2. On the tracing of Roads for military and other Purposes, over Mountains and across mountainous Districts; 3. On the *Deblai* and *Remblai*, a Problem connected with military Constructions; the Earth removed, or excavated, being the *Deblai*, and the Mount, Rampart, &c. formed with it, the *Remblai*; 4. On the Track followed by a luminous Ray, and by elastic Bodies in general, in the Phenomena of Reflection and Refraction; and, lastly, a theoretical Examination of the Structure of English Ships of War.

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It is difficult to give in a general form, without diagrams, any very explicit idea of a work which, from the beginning to the end, is dependent on figures and formulæ for illustration. We can therefore only attempt a very superficial sketch of its contents, and must refer our readers to the volume itself, if they are desirous of comprehending more distinctly the refined geometrical process on which the author founds his investigations.

The theory of floating bodies, their stability, instability, &c., are points of great importance in naval architecture; and have accordingly engaged the attention of several able mathematicians, among whom *Bouguer* and *Euler* stand most eminent. M. DUPIN, however, has taken an entirely new view of this subject, and his method of investigation is totally different from those of the able geometers above named. Indeed, the theory which he pursues, and the geometry on which his investigations are founded, were altogether unknown in their time; and with this new instrument he has been led to new results, and has given additional extent to this interesting branch of hydrodynamics. He considers under one general point of view all the positions that a body can take while floating on the same fluid; its weight and form being supposed constant. The part of the floating body which is immersed in the fluid being termed the *carène*, we know that in order that the body itself may be in equilibrium it is necessary that the centre of volume of this *carène*, and the centre of gravity of the body, must be in the same vertical; at the same time, the weight of the body being supposed constant, the mass or volume of the *carène* will be constant also: but its figure will change, as well as the plane of floatation, as we vary the position of the several masses in the anterior of the body, so as to alter the position of the common centre of gravity; and consequently we shall find, for different states of the same body, an infinite number of planes of floatation, and a corresponding number of centres of *carène*: which centres connected form a surface which the author denominates the *surface of the centres of carène*. Again; all the planes of floatation are tangents to another surface, which, with reference to these planes, is of the same kind as those which M. *Monge*, in his Descriptive Geometry, calls *enveloppes*, and which therefore M. DUPIN denominates *la surface enveloppe des flottaisons*.

Our readers will conceive, from what is above stated, an idea of the great generality which the author thus introduces into this problem; and they will see also the impracticability of our giving any intelligible abstract of a solution so generalized,

alized, without the aid of diagrams, and will therefore require no apology from us for leaving the process thus imperfectly explained. It is indeed impossible to comprehend the process of investigation without consulting the book itself; the utmost that we can do is to state one or two of the conclusions; such, for example, as the following. The author having shewn that, if we place the floating body in a position of equilibrium, the centre of its *carène* will be in a certain point on the surface, which is the locus of the centres of *carène*; and that the plane tangent to the surface is necessarily parallel to the plane of floatation; he thence easily deduces, 'That, in any position of equilibrium, the right line drawn through the centre of gravity of the floating body, and through the centre of *carène*, is perpendicular in this point to the surface of the centres of *carène*.' Hence he transfers the problem of finding the positions of equilibrium to the determination of right normals to the surface of the centre of *carène*, selecting among these normals those only which pass through the centre of gravity of the body. The positions of equilibrium, however, may be of three kinds — stable, unstable, and mixed; and on this point M. DUPIN deduces a remarkably neat and curious result; viz. 'according as the position of a floating body is stable or unstable, the distance of the centre of gravity of this body from the centre of its *carène* is a minimum or a maximum, with respect to all the positions (indefinitely near to them) that the body can take in the fluid.'

We might select a variety of other theorems and corollaries, which flow with the greatest simplicity from the general principles first established: but we doubt much whether we could render them very intelligible, without extending our remarks beyond our proper limits.

The two following memoirs, on the tracing of roads and on the problem of *Deblai* and *Remblai*, — terms employed equally by French and English military engineers, — are treated in the same general way as the first, and equally bid defiance to perspicuous abridgment. The nature of the inquiry, however, is sufficiently obvious. In carrying a road over a mountainous district, we cannot follow the line which we should naturally adopt on a level plane, or on one slightly inclined: for the slope of the hill may in many cases be such as to be wholly impassable; and in others, although it be not absolutely so, yet to persevere in a direct ascent would be to throw away much time, and to exhaust the strength of the men or animals that are required to pass it. Our object, therefore, in such cases, ought to be to proceed by such a degree of inclination that, without lengthening our road too much, we may

may render the ascent most easily practicable; a problem which may readily be conceived to furnish considerable **scope** for analytical and geometrical application. So also the problem of *Deblai* and *Remblai*. When the question is the construction of great military works, the due arrangement of the labor, the proper proportioning of the ramparts, glacis, &c., to the ditches, fosses, and other excavations, so that no greater quantity may be required for the one than can be supplied by the other, and this under every variety of surface and circumstance, is far from being a simple and straight-forward operation. On the contrary, it presents a great field for the display of that peculiar talent and skill which should be possessed by a scientific engineer; and it is certainly treated in a very masterly manner by M. DUPIN, in the memoir in question. Its principles, however, we cannot attempt to illustrate without the assistance of diagrams; and this would be still more impracticable with respect to the fourth chapter, the object of which is to investigate the path that a ray of light, or any elastic body, will follow in the phenomena of reflection and refraction.

The subject treated in the fifth memoir we have already examined, in our review of the writer's paper published in the second part of the Philosophical Transactions of our Royal Society for 1817 (see M. R. vol. lxxxiv. p. 265.); and it would be useless to enter again on this inquiry, on which so much has already been written in the different journals, both French and English. The question of the priority of invention has been, we think, sufficiently canvassed; and, after all, we are inclined to consider it as of very little importance. We have before stated that, whatever might have been attempted in France with reference to oblique riders, the failure of those attempts is indisputable; and the honor, therefore, of bringing this method into practice, is due only to Sir Robert Seppings. It appears from M. DUPIN's statement, that the French have at length adopted the same mode of construction.

On the whole, we conceive that the present volume is calculated to add much to the reputation of its author in this department of mathematical science: and we are sorry that we have not been able, from the peculiar nature of its investigations, to give a more adequate idea of its contents.

ART. IV. *Recueil d'Observations Electro-Dynamiques; &c.; i. e.*

A Collection of Electro-Dynamic Observations: containing various Memoirs, Notices, and Extracts from Letters and Periodical Works, relative to the Action of two Electric Currents on each other; of an Electric Current, a Magnet, and the Terrestrial Globe; and of two Magnets on each other. By M. AMPÈRE, Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, (Institute of France,) &c. &c. 8vo. Paris. 1822.

WE know not any instance in which a science, so entirely novel as that of electro-magnetism, passed with such rapid progress from a state of infancy to maturity as this has done. It was only in 1820 that Professor *Oersted*, secretary to the Royal Academy of Sciences of Copenhagen, discovered, and established on satisfactory experiments, the reciprocal action that has place between the uniting wire of a galvanic battery and a magnet; and already (1823) we are enabled not only to foretell the effect of any proposed electro-magnetic combination, but also, when that effect is of a kind that can be measured, we can compute numerically its amount:—a circumstance that is the more astonishing, because the kindred science of simple magnetism resisted for above two thousand years all the efforts of philosophers to reduce it to the dominion of analysis. At the same time, however, it must be acknowledged that, the mathematical laws of magnetism having been just previously discovered, they served to lead the way to the establishment of those of electro-magnetism, although there is nothing common between them. Another circumstance, to which we may in part attribute the rapid progress of electro-magnetism, is the discovery by Dr. Hare of that peculiar galvanic combination which he has designated by the term *Calorimeter*; and which, of all others, has under the same surface the greatest electro-magnetic power.

When this very interesting relation between galvanism and magnetism was first ascertained, as we have stated above, at Copenhagen, in 1820, an account of it was soon transmitted to Paris and London. In the former capital it was anxiously pursued by MM. AMPÈRE, *Arago*, *Biot*, and others: and in the latter by Sir H. Davy, Mr. Faraday, Mr. Barlow, Professor Cummings, &c. It was soon afterward undertaken by Professor Leslie in Scotland, and by all the most celebrated philosophers of Germany; and, thus powerfully assailed, this beautiful science seems to have yielded up at once all its secrets, and left scarcely any thing farther to desire on the subject.

M. AMPÈRE was one of the first philosophers who repeated the experiment of Professor *Oersted*; and he continued, up to

to the period of the publication of the present volume, anxiously occupied in the investigation. He has been in correspondence with all the philosophers of England and Germany who engaged in the same inquiry, has consulted with diligence and perseverance every periodical publication that has contained communications on the subject, and has given the results of his labors in the present collection. *

Professor *Oersted's* experiments tended only to prove that, if the uniting or conjunctive wire of a galvanic battery was brought within a certain distance of a freely suspended compass-needle, the latter would be deflected from its natural direction in a greater or less degree; and in this or that direction, according to the relative position and actual distance of the needle and wire from each other. For example, it was shewn by these experiments that, if the conjunctive wire was placed in the magnetic meridian, parallel to the needle, but above the plane in which it vibrated, the end of the needle, which was towards the negative side of the battery, would pass westward, whether the conjunctive wire was to the east or the west, or directly above the needle. If, on the other hand, the wire still preserved its parallelism, but was brought below the horizontal plane of the needle, then that end of it which before passed to the west now passed to the east; and, when the needle and the wire were both in the same horizontal plane, no motion whatever ensued. These facts alone proved most distinctly that, however intimate the relation between the action of the wire and that of the needle might be, still the effect was altogether of a different kind from that which was produced by one magnet on another.

In pursuing these first hints, M. AMPÈRE discovered that only an action was excited between a galvanic conjunctive wire and a magnet: but that two conjunctive wires were attracted or repelled when parallel to each other, accordingly as they passed to the corresponding or to the opposite poles of two different galvanic machines; and on this fact he has

* In the first instance, the author circulated among his friends a small pamphlet, containing merely a report of his own labors and those of MM. *Arago* and *Oersted*: but he afterward included those of Mr. *Faraday* and others, till the work grew so much under his hands, that he has deemed it necessary to add the following notice to his advertisement:

'*Note.*—Persons having imperfect copies of this work may have them completed, by sending to any of the booksellers here named; among whom are Messrs. *Bosange* and Co. for London. We mention this because it is probable that there are several imperfect copies in England.

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endeavored to establish the theory not only of electro-magnetic but of simple magnetic action, and the magnetism of the terrestrial globe. We must observe, however, that some discrepancies occur between the results arising out of this theory and those deduced from observations, which seem to indicate that something still is wanted to render the theory complete. It is at this point that the author commences the first chapter of the ingenious treatise before us, and thence proceeds to develop in a continued series the several facts that had been discovered before the publication of his work.

The first memoir, or article, is intitled, 'On the Action exercised on one Electric Current by another Electric Current, the Terrestrial Globe, and a Magnet.' — In this chapter, the author explains the several apparatus that he employed, and the various facts that resulted from the first series of experiments made by himself, by *Oersted*, by *Arago*, and by *Biot*. He shews the method of rendering the conjunctive wires moveable; and the construction of what may be termed a galvanic needle; viz. a galvanic conjunctive wire that will receive direction from the terrestrial magnetism, the plane of it falling into an east and west direction, or perpendicular to the natural magnetic direction. He also explains the method of magnetizing steel bars with the galvanic battery, the effect of the same on iron filings, &c.

In the second chapter, this subject is continued; the construction of a galvanic dipping needle is explained, and the position which it takes up is shewn to be one at right angles to that of the common magnetic dipping needle: the galvanic wire inclining from the north to the south at an angle of about 20°, or the complement of the dip.

Chapter iii. is principally employed in discussions relative to the accordance of the author's theory with observations and experimental results. In a postscript, he enters into a sort of historical account of certain facts that had been previously observed, bearing in some measure on the present discoveries; giving at the same time a connected relation of the facts discovered by himself, *M. Arago*, *Sir Humphrey Davy*, and *M. Biot*; and farther insisting on his theory and the exhibition of analytical formulæ deducible from it.

Next follows a series of letters between *M. AMPÈRE* and several German professors and others; viz. A Letter from *M. Berthollet*, on the Magnetic State of Bodies while transmitting an Electric Current; — a Letter from the Author to *M. Arago*; — a Letter from the Author to *M. Erman*, Secretary to the Royal Academy of Berlin; — Extract of a Letter from *Sir H. Davy* to *M. AMPÈRE*; — Extract of a Letter from

from M. AMPÈRE to Professor Rive, &c. &c. At this date, the very beautiful experiments of Mr. Faraday, of the Royal Institution, were not known in Paris: but, having been since transmitted to M. AMPÈRE, they are made the subject of the next article, intitled Memoir on the Electro-Magnetic Motions and the Theory of Magnetism, by Mr. Faraday; translated by M. *Anatole Riffault*, with Notes by MM. *Savary* and *Ampère*. These ingenious experiments of Mr. Faraday, which are as elegant in the exhibition as they are important in their consequences, placed the doctrine of electro-magnetism almost entirely on a new basis. It is manifested by them, for example, that the galvanic wire is not only disturbed in its direction by the action of a magnet, but that, with certain provisions to give the former a freedom of motion, it will revolve about the magnet in a manner resembling the rotation of a planet about the sun; — and on the contrary, when the wire is fixed, and the magnet free, the latter will in the same way revolve about the former. Mr. Faraday also explained the direction in which these motions were made, according as the wire was exposed to this or that pole of the magnet; or according as the electric current proceeded from one or from the other extremity of the battery. He moreover proved that the terrestrial magnetism was of itself sufficient to produce a similar rotatory motion. — This interesting memoir, which was first published in the “*Journal of the Royal Institution*,” is given at length in the work before us, and is followed by notes endeavoring to prove that these new and unexpected results are not inconsistent with the theory advanced by M. AMPÈRE. We must say, however, that we cannot see that the arguments are so satisfactory as ‘to leave nothing farther to be desired,’ which seems to be the opinion of the author: but it would occupy too much space to state at length the nature of our objections.

We come next to an answer from M. AMPÈRE to a letter from Professor *Van-Beek*, on a new electro-magnetic experiment; and the two articles that follow give a summary of the several new experiments and results obtained since March, 1821. Here we have the first account of the very elegant experiment of M. AMPÈRE, in which a magnet and a wire are made to revolve each on its respective axis; a beautiful continuation of the experiments of Mr. Faraday, who had only produced a motion of rotation of these substances about each other.

The heads of the several articles which form the remaining part of this interesting work are; — An Extract of a Letter from the Author to Professor *Rive* on Electro-dynamic Experiments;

periments; and on the Formulæ which represent the mutual Action of two indefinitely small Portions of the Electric Currents on each other: — On the Action exercised by the Earth on Voltaic Conductors: — Memoirs on the Action which the Terrestrial Globe exercises on a Portion of a movable Voltaic Conductor: — Addition to the preceding Memoir, by M. AMPÈRE: — Memoir on the Determination of the Formulæ which represent the mutual Action of two indefinitely small Portions of Voltaic Conductors, read before the Royal Academy of Sciences in June, 1822, by M. AMPÈRE: — Extract from an Additional Note to the preceding Memoirs, read June 24. 1822, to the Royal Academy of Sciences, by the Same: — Extract from a Memoir presented to the Royal Academy of Sciences, September 16. 1822: — Methodical Exposition of Electro-Dynamic Phænomena, and on the Laws of those Phænomena: — Extract made by M. Savary from the Memoir which he read to the Academy of Sciences, February 3. 1823: — Additional Observations by M. AMPÈRE.

In the course of the several memoirs thus enumerated, many highly curious experiments are described; among which those of Professor Rive on the simple floating galvanic combination, and the revolving cylinders by M. AMPÈRE, are perhaps the most interesting of such as we have omitted to mention more particularly; because neither of these requires the aid of the galvanic machine. So many new facts, however, are perpetually arising as this science is more examined, that many which have come to our knowledge from different sources are in no way mentioned in the volume before us: among which we may enumerate the wheel and axle rotation by Mr. Barlow; the several facts elucidated by Professor Cumming; the quicksilver-elevations, by Sir H. Davy; and the curious metallic combination by Professor Seebach of Berlin. These and several other beautiful experiments had not reached M. AMPÈRE when his Collection was publishing, and of course could not be introduced: but we shall have an opportunity of describing some of them, when we make our report on Mr. Barlow's "Essay on Magnetic Attractions, and on the Laws of Electro-Magnetism;" in which work the science is brought down to a more recent date, and its mathematical laws are completely established. In the interval, we have considered that it would be acceptable to our readers to be put in possession of some of the leading facts connected with this new branch of philosophy; which has certainly, within the space of three years, produced a greater number of interesting facts and experiments than any other science ever furnished in ten times that period.

ART. V. *Précis des Evénemens Militaires, &c.*; i. e. A Summary of Military Events, or Historical Essays on the Campaigns from 1799 to 1814; by General Count MATHIEU DUMAS. 8vo. Vols. IX. to XIV. including the Campaigns of 1803, 1804, and 1805. With two Folio Atlases. Paris. 1820, 1821, and 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co.

It will be in the recollection of many of our readers, that the first eight volumes of this officer's commentaries on the wars of the Revolution have already received a minute scrutiny at our hands, and have passed our examination most creditably to their indefatigable author.* The volumes now requiring a continuance of our notice are those which have been published connectedly since the year 1819, and which embrace the history of the war down to 1806; but, as the Napoleon Memoirs, and other extensive works, have already given copious details of these events, and have duly commented on them, we deem it advisable to notice the opinions of this writer on material points; rather than to separate his account into distinct periods of years; which latter course we had usually adopted in former instances, because he had then supplied the only good description of the contest in question. It was not, moreover, until the year 1805 that the war assumed a decided character; and therefore the first two volumes of the present set are comparatively uninteresting, except in the accounts of Napoleon's coronation, and other matters concerning the events subsequent to that act. Before, however, we commence our remarks, the general reader may not feel displeased to have his memory refreshed by a slight chronological view of the periods described in these essays.

The year 1803 was chiefly remarkable on account of the detention of the British travellers and residents in France, previously to the formal commencement of hostilities; and for the invasion of Hanover by the republican armies. The next year is memorable from having been the epoch of Bonaparte's assumption of the purple, and of war being declared between England and Spain. In 1805, a more interesting and varied scene was presented; active measures were put in force by Great Britain against Spain; Napoleon placed the iron crown of Italy on his head; a change was made in the affairs of Holland; Genoa and the Ligurian states were incorporated in the French empire; the Boulogne flotilla was attacked by the English; Naples concluded a treaty offensive

* See M. R. vols. xxx. N. S. p. 581.; xxxii. p. 307.; xxxiii. p. 300.; xxxvii. p. 495.; lxxxviii. p. 485.; and lxxxix. p. 472.; and

and defensive with France; Napoleon gained the victory of Guntzberg; Ulm and 30,000 Austrians surrendered almost unconditionally; the combats of Moelk, Loeben, and Diernstien proved fatal to the Austrians; and Napoleon's eagles were planted in the imperial palace of Schönbrunn, and on the towers of Vienna. Presburg surrendered also to the French, and the conflicts of Tintersdorff and Austerlitz were gained by that nation over the united forces of the Russians and Austrians. In some measure to balance these reverses, Sir Robert Calder defeated the Spanish and Gallic fleet off Ferrol; and Lord Nelson, with a force much inferior to his opponents, at Trafalgar swept the ocean clear from the remainder of their united navy, excepting the four ships which escaped from him to fall into the hands of Sir Richard Strachan near Cape Ortgal. This memorable year finished by a treaty of peace being concluded at Presburg, between the contending powers of France and Austria.

Two of the six volumes before us are devoted to the history of the years 1803 and 1804, and the remainder embrace that of 1805. In viewing the first period, we shall, for the reasons already stated, principally look to the author's explanation of that departure from the rules of civilization, which marked the conduct of *Bonaparte* in the measure so unwisely adopted against the British travellers in France; and also to his opinions on the invasion of Hanover. The English *détenus*, however, here receive not much more consideration than was afforded to them by the First Consul; whose violent departure from the laws of nations Count Dumas neither defends nor blames: seeming, by the silence under which he passes this extraordinary measure, to think that it was one of state-necessity or of pure justice. As the opinion of the world has been long decided on this point, it is not necessary to record our individual sentiments. On the other hand, if the notions of the General are objectionable on this subject, he in some degree counterbalances them by the faithful exposition which he gives, immediately afterward, of the situation of Europe on the rupture of the peace of Amiens; developing the opposing forces with great accuracy, and defining the sentiments which actuated the belligerents with much fidelity, research, and exactitude.*

It is somewhat curious to observe, in perusing the notes

* In describing the interference of France in the affairs of Switzerland, which occurred in 1803, he has also added to his appendix a very long and valuable statistical paper on the different Cantons of that Republic.

attached to the ninth volume, that *Bonaparte* foresaw the attack on Walcheren so early as in 1803, five years before it actually took place. His letters to *Monnet*, the governor who surrendered Flushing to Lord Chatham, will be perused at the present day with much interest; particularly as they contain a plan of defence traced out by his own active mind at such an early period of the war, which, if *Monnet* had practised it in 1808, we (who have some personal knowledge of the event in question) are very much inclined to believe would have rendered the taking of that place a matter of much greater difficulty than it was.

From p. 183. to p. 221., the author endeavors to trace the measures of Napoleon concerning the invasion of Hanover, and has performed his task with much ability; preceding it by a sketch of the political and geographical situation of that country at the time, and an exposition of the views of *Bonaparte* in endeavoring to obtain possession of it: which, of course, were merely to attack England in a vulnerable part, and to paralyze the motions of Prussia, whose steadiness at that moment was more than questionable. The command of the Elbe and of the Weser, however, was an important object, and one in which the favorite system of France against English commerce was likely to be fully employed. The eagerness of *Talleyrand* and his master to compass this desired end, while they were pretending to invoke peace, may be observed by simply stating that, in eight days after the King had announced to the British parliament that it would be necessary to make war, almost as soon as this declaration was known at Paris, and long before it was received in Hanover, *Mortier*, with all the chosen Generals of the consular army, and with more than sixteen thousand of the oldest and best troops, was in march from the frontiers of Holland. Count *DUMAS*, who (as we have before stated) is a General of Napoleon's creation, though now in the royal army, cannot, of course, forget the glory of his old companions; and, in the present instance, he seems disposed to attribute their success to the irresistible effects of their renown, rather than to that Machiavelian policy which conducted them into the heart of an invaded state, before General *Walmoden* and his well-disciplined followers were aware that a war had even been declared.

It is, we observe, a custom of *Bonaparte*, and of almost all the French writers on his wars, to praise their enemy very highly whenever he has been defeated, but to allow him very little merit if victory chose to remain on his side of the question. This system we regard entirely as a national failing, and

and cannot therefore waste our time in either exposing or combating it; for it is well known, we must suppose, to all our readers, and too deeply engrained in the French writers, either to be washed out or to be varnished over. It is, therefore, merely mentioned now because the really efficient Hanoverian army is flatteringly praised in the pages of this work; while, by a most singular mode of reasoning, the due name of which it would very much puzzle a logician to assign, the Duke of Cambridge, or rather the English government, is ridiculed for having ordered a *levy en masse* throughout Hanover, when the unexpected enemy had passed its frontier. This last resource of an invaded state, it is said, merely shews much fear, while it can do no good. Are we to suppose that, whenever a foreign army is poured into a territory before hostilities are declared, M. DUMAS would insist that, lest the natives should be alarmed, an instant capitulation should be made? To what follies will not national vanity lead even an otherwise sound mind!

Among the notes appended to the ninth volume, the reader will find an excellent paper on the great military roads formed by *Bonaparte's* engineers over the Alps; and a well drawn parallel between the Roman mode of consolidating conquests, and that which was adopted by Napoleon. The notes on the importance of the Isle of Malta also deserve much attention from the student of British history, as well as those who feel any interest in the question now agitating on the re-establishment of the order of St. John of Jerusalem.

Volume ten concludes the military history of the year 1804. Besides the great features of that period which we have already mentioned, it describes the plan of operations which the First Consul had matured on the rupture of the peace of Amiens; the measures taken to secure Italy and Holland; the famous project of invading England; the conspiracy of Georges; the murder of the Duc *D'Enghien*; and, finally, the elevation of Napoleon to the throne of Charlemagne. Respecting the plot against the life of *Bonaparte*, and the Duc *D'Enghien's* death, we have, in noticing the Napoleon Memoirs, (Art. I. Review for December last,) given all the most interesting extracts and opinions from the pages of this author; who is, we repeat, very far from throwing the entire odium of the murder on Napoleon's memory, but who also seems to believe that the "damned spot" cannot be wholly washed out from it.

The papers in this volume on the defence of Italy are particularly interesting to military men; but there is a meagreness about the description of the celebrated fortress of Alessandria,

both in this and in the next volume, for which we can account only by supposing that the present government of France prohibits, equally with its precursor, any developement of that extraordinary work, which was erected at an enormous cost (thirty millions of francs), on perfectly new and most ingenious principles: the *revêtement en décharge*, covert-way *en cremailière*, and a mode of completely ventilating triple ranges of bomb-proofs constructed under the rampart and *terre pleines*, constituting its leading characteristics. It would be even difficult to obtain any information of these new modes of fortifying on the spot itself, as they have been entirely destroyed; and, in a controversy between two French engineers on the old and the new methods, we have observed the same obscurity respecting Alessandria: one of the writers acknowledging that it is not politic to enter into any details. Our countrymen have, however, so far succeeded in proving the efficacy of some of these ingenious projects, that the new works at Quebec are constructing on the principle of circulating casemates behind the escarp; and an experiment is, we understand, to be tried at Woolwich, by order of the Duke of Wellington, to prove whether *Carnot's* loop-holed circulating wall, near the foot of what was formerly the escarp, is breachable by a plunging or parabolic fire from cannon or howitzers. Some military men ridicule the system of *Carnot*; because in it the *glacis* slopes towards the place instead of from it; because there is no ditch (properly speaking); and because, if the exterior and the interior circulating wall, or *chemin des rondes*, can be breached by *ricochet* or vertical fire, by plunging shot at it, or by well-directed mines, then no obstacle whatever prevents the assault.

We have now proceeded, in the order of time, to the period at which Napoleon was declared Emperor of France, to his coronation by Pius the Seventh, and to his investment at Milan by Cardinal *Caprara* in the royal chair of Italy: 'Conducted under a canopy,' says the author, 'to the sanctuary, after having received from the hands of the Cardinal all the royal insignia, and having committed them to his great officers of state, Napoleon ascended to the altar, took the iron crown, and, placing it on his head, pronounced with a loud voice these remarkable words, which have since served as a motto for the order which he instituted on this occasion; "*Dieu me la donne, gare à qui la touche.*"' The whole detail of these events is written with much clearness and precision; and will be of great utility hereafter to those who may compose a regular history of the rise and fall of the Napoleon dynasty.

In

In the twelfth volume, Count DUMAS enters at large on the subject of the Boulogne flotilla, and the camps of the army of England; and in the course of his observations he draws up very spirited parallel between the Roman invasion of Britain, and that which was threatened by the modern Cæsar: whence we find that nearly the same points of embarkation were chosen by Napoleon that favoured the operations of the Roman; the traces of the legionary camps and bulwarks serving, in several instances, for the French retrenchments and batteries. As we have already observed, Napoleon's object in creating this enormous and expensive preparation is well known, and was most perfectly attained. He foresaw the storm which was gathering over the Continent; he was fully aware that legitimate sovereigns would leave no means untried to hurl him from the throne which he had seized; and, as the invasion of England would occupy their fullest attention, he was in hopes that he should be able to take them by surprise. How well he succeeded is familiar to us all. It was but an easy march for the immense legions of Boulogne to the shores of the Rhine, compared to the task which it was conjectured he would attempt, of transporting them over the Channel; and he was thus in the heart of the German empire, before the plans which he had matured were even conjectured by his enemies.

From the animated details of Count DUMAS, who gives the proper authorities for his statements, we learn that the flotilla which was destined to transport the army of England, in 1805, consisted of 1339 armed vessels, capable of holding 130,638 men and 2219 horses; 954 transports for 30,577 men and 6840 horses, with about as many more horses for the service of the artillery: constituting altogether an army of 162,090 men, and nearly 15,000 horses. The reader will find much curious matter in the two engravings which explain the modes adopted in stowing the horses and stores on board the luggers, &c., each ship containing divisions for corn, bran, cases of saddles and bridles, barrels of biscuit, water, cases of arms, flints, cartouches, small waggons, brandy, &c. &c. The method of causing three hundred vessels, carrying 66,000 men, to form out at sea in one tide is also given; and the author enters into the most minute details of the manner in which the flotilla was disposed. We have likewise an interesting plan and drawing of the distribution of the Crosses of the Legion of Honor to the army of England; which must have been an imposing and magnificent spectacle, well calculated to inspire the French soldiery

soldiery with an enthusiasm for their leader and his cause. In a military point of view, the advantages which this great mass of soldiers derived from the constant exercises and stimulus to exertion that were afforded them in these camps appear to have been very great; and, as most of the officers were already inured to the hardships of war, and well acquainted with its practice, they had now an opportunity of studying it theoretically, while they rendered their followers as fine a body of troops as ever quitted France. It was at this favorable juncture that *Bonaparte*, having caused his military knowledge to be regarded as nearly infallible, undertook to root out from his service the remains of that formal and mechanical system, which had been adopted by the French army, in imitation of Frederick the Great. He preserved only what was really good in the tactics of that celebrated warrior, and simplified its details so much that the movements of a legion were performed precisely on the same principles as those of a company or a troop. The effect of this plan was soon felt in the subsequent wars; facility and celerity distinguishing the movements of Napoleon's armies, and disorder rarely occurring in the performance of even the most difficult evolutions under the heaviest fire, because every officer and every soldier knew exactly the duty which he had to perform. New and simple modes of changing the front and direction *en masse*, deployments, firing by battalions advancing, and the sudden formation of squares to resist charges of cavalry, were the principal features of this new code: which we have mentioned thus particularly, because we are pleased to observe that our present Adjutant-General, Sir Henry Torrens, (under the sanction of the Commander-in-Chief,) is now actively engaged in a farther simplification and great improvement of it. When this end has been attained, and the projected changes in the uniform of the men have been completed, the British soldier will no longer be the resemblance of a mere stiff mechanical figure on a chess-board; the new drill combining gymnastic exercise and pliability of figure with proper military precision, and an increased stimulus to exertion: while that primary desideratum for which an excellent writer (*Guibert*) has so strenuously contended, the union of the light and heavy infantry, is gradually developing itself in the increasing simplicity and activity of our movements in line and column. In fact, experience must have clearly shewn that every foot-soldier should be as capable of performing the one duty as the other; and that every regiment of infantry should be
ready

ready at all times to act in either capacity.* — We refer our military readers to the third note of the twelfth volume of this work, for more particular information respecting the constitution of Napoleon's army.

The remainder of the twelfth volume is occupied chiefly with the history of the coalition of the northern sovereigns against Napoleon. — Great efforts were making by sea on the part of England and by land on the Continent, to overthrow his usurpation; in consequence of which, the Army of England, as it was styled, was immediately put in motion to overwhelm the German provinces, and the Boulogne flotilla was now destined to dispersion and oblivion. 'Thus finished,' the author observes, 'this great enterprise; an eternal subject of political and military controversy between the two principal nations of the world, *unfortunately but necessarily* rivals. English pride has always considered as a mere fable, and vain boast, the resolution of throwing on the British shores an army of sufficient force to effect a real invasion successfully: but we imagine that we have furnished sufficient proofs of the possibility of this expedition.' *Quicquid volumus, facile credimus*. Count DUMAS thinks, of course, like a *véritable* Frenchman: but, as long as we had such a navy as we then had, and especially such a leader as Nelson, we believe that the sober-minded nations of the north agreed with us that, if Napoleon ever seriously intended to execute his scheme, it would have proved one of those *chateaux en Espagne* which the excess of bias and imagination so often led him to pursue. It will not, however, be a waste of time to peruse the memoir on the Boulogne flotilla, written by *Bonaparte*, appended to the ninth volume of the present work; and which is divided into four chapters, under the following heads: — 1. *What my Design was in the Creation of this Flotilla*. 2. *What is the best Method now of making Use of it*. 3. *Advantages of this Plan*; and, 4. *What will be the Amount of these Advantages*.

In perusing this part of the Count's history, we meet occasionally with singular anecdotes of Napoleon, evidently given unintentionally, and arising solely out of the nature of the subject; such as the account of his minute arrangements

* It has been objected that, if we multiply the lessons which a soldier is to get by heart, we only confuse him: but experience is at variance with this position, and we trust to the system of the sapper-corps for the proof: these men are taught both duties, in addition to their peculiar professional education, and find no difficulty in accomplishing all.

with his Ministers and Generals, respecting his vast plans for the continental war, during his short stay in Paris after he had ordered the troops to march from the camps of Boulogne. His time was also equally occupied with subjects relating to the interior administration of France, and with the investigation of scientific labors; and at this period he decreed the abolition of the republican calendar, and re-established the Gregorian. *La Place*, *St. Jean d'Angely*, and *Mounier*, in the most learned manner traced the different causes of the successive reformations in the calendar by Numa, Cæsar, and Gregory XIII., and developed in the clearest form those inevitable imperfections which occur in the measure of time as well as the various modes of correction adopted by the greatest astronomers and geometers; while it was explained to the people that the idea of fixing a new era at the autumnal equinox, and entirely altering the received system, tended indeed to perpetuate the epoch of the Revolution, but had completely embarrassed the exterior relations of the country, had not been productive of any benefit to science, had not been followed by a single nation, and served only to isolate France from the rest of Europe. This *exposé* was received without any dissension; and the French returned to their former usages on this point.

The gigantic schemes of the French Emperor reached from the shores of the Baltic to the Neapolitan soil, his armies vied with each other in skill and enthusiasm, and his Generals were among the most scientific and warlike of the age. *Bernadotte* traversed Hesse; *Marmont* occupied Mentz; *Massena* took the command in Italy; and, as the Russian and Austrian armies were put in motion, *Bonaparte* ordered new levies, organized the national guards, formed three armies of reserve, and, having completed his preparations, established his own head-quarters at Strasburg. — In describing these events, a very extraordinary assertion is made. Count DUMAS declares most roundly that the unfortunate General *Mack* was chosen to command the Austrian armies under the cloak of the Archduke Ferdinand's name, notwithstanding the high military fame of Prince Charles *, because the English mistrusted that Archduke, and had a more perfect confidence in *Mack*. We are well aware that strenuous exertions were made by England, both in subsidies and physical means, at that period: but it will scarcely be credited that Mr. Pitt had so complete a control over the Emperors of Russia and Austria,

* Who commanded the army in Italy; which M. DUMAS seems to forget here.

as to oblige them to cause the Archduke Ferdinand to act merely as a nominal chief, and to be directed by a General whose fame was not of the first class, and whose indecisive character must have been known by the court. The Archduke Ferdinand was the real commander; as will appear to any reflecting mind on the perusal of the events which afterward occurred at Ulm, and of Lord Paget's despatch, which is given in the notes.

We must now attend to the thirteenth volume; the leading subjects of which, in the order of time, are the passages of the Rhine and the Danube, the battles of Vertingen, Albeck, and Elchingen; the capitulations of Memmingen and Ulm; the passage of the Adige; the battle of Caldiero; the naval victory of Trafalgar; and the battles of Lambach, Laufen, Amstetten, and Mariazell. The most interesting of these details are those that relate Lord Nelson's victory and the surrender of Ulm, which happened nearly at the same moment, in the month of October, 1805; and by which both France and Austria were completely paralyzed, the one in the destruction of its hopes to overturn the preponderance of the English navy, and the other in its efforts to resist the overwhelming torrent of *Bonaparte's* military progress. Of all the accounts which have been given of the battle of Trafalgar, in England or France, we have seen none that appears more worthy of consultation, both for accuracy and knowledge of the subject, than that which here occurs in the pages of Count DUMAS; who, however, very modestly disclaims any merit respecting it, farther than as having digested it from the memoir of a French naval officer of distinction, who was present in the action. As this account occupies from p. 175. to p. 240., it is necessarily too extensive for us to attempt even a regular abstract of it: but, as the style in which it is written is much superior to that of ordinary naval relations, and as a spirit of equal justice seems to pervade the narrative as far as it can possibly be expected, we shall take an extract or two, for the information of such of our readers as may not already have had access to this voluminous publication. The first which appears most worthy of notice being the opening paragraph, we shall literally translate it.

'The combined fleet, under *Villeneuve*, consisted of forty ships of the line; of which thirty-three, well armed and victualled, were ready for service at a moment's notice.' — 'Nelson arrived from England in the *Victory* to assume the command of the English squadron, but was not able to unite more than twenty-seven ships under his flag. The combined force included eighteen French ships, of which three were of 80 guns and fifteen of 74; with

with fifteen Spanish, four being three-deckers, two of 80 guns, eight of 74, and one of 64. In the English fleet were seven three-deckers, two of 80 guns, fifteen of 74, and three of 64. The superiority by six ships on the part of the combined fleet was compensated, on that of the English, by the greater number of three-deckers; and, above all, by the advantage of the unity of the homogeneity of elements which composed it, with the perfect similitude of command and execution on board vessels of the same nation. —

‘ *Villeneuve*, knowing the disgrace which awaited him at court, and having been secretly informed that he was speedily to be replaced by Admiral *Rossilly*, determined to leave the harbour, and to conduct his ships to Toulon. Lord Nelson had carefully concealed the composition of his fleet, and the reinforcement which it had received; so that the French admiral, believing that its strength was not above twenty-one ships, determined, contrary to the advice of the Spaniards, to profit by his superiority, and give Lord Nelson battle, if he opposed his passage. A victory gained over the hero of England would efface all other recollections, and cover *Villeneuve* with glory; while a defeat would add but little to the humiliation in which Napoleon had so unjustly plunged him.

‘ We have undertaken a task of the most difficult nature, that of clearly describing all the details of the decisive battle which the two fleets waged at the mouth of the Straits of Gibraltar; an event as memorable, both from its military character and its results, as that which at the same epoch (the capitulation of Ulm) astonished and paralyzed the coalesced powers; as if Fortune, in her sanguinary sports, had determined at the same instant to cover both parties with her favors and to overwhelm them with her displeasure, in order that they should be equally convinced of the fickleness of her disposition. The same sun, which shone on the triumphs of the French eagles at the Danube, displayed the humiliation of the standards of France at the Cape of Trafalgar.

‘ Being desirous of presenting our readers with a faithful relation, we have examined minutely the official reports of the admirals on either side; and have also digested the particular evidences of officers who were witnesses of and actors in this naval combat. These researches led us to the fact that a similar comparative essay had already been made, in the same spirit and with much discernment, by an officer of the French navy, *M. Parisot*. The account of the battle of Trafalgar, which he inserted in the sixteenth volume of “*Victories and Conquests*,” (p. 156. to p. 192.) appeared to us very impartial, and had also the additional merit of great precision and clearness; we have therefore adopted it: but, from the nature of our work, we have been obliged to shorten its details in some places, and frequently to add our own observations.’

Having thus made our readers acquainted with Count DUMAS and with *M. Parisot*, as among the best narrators of one of the greatest victories ever gained by any nation on the seas,

we shall pass rapidly on to the other parts of the work; advising our naval officers, however, to peruse this memorial on the glory of their profession very minutely, and particularly the excellent translation which the author has given of Lord Nelson's instructions for the formation of his new order of battle, delivered to the fleet while watching the enemy's departure from harbour. 'Certainly,' says Count DUMAS, after having given this masterly order, 'the foresight of genius could not be carried farther; nor could it be possible to leave less to chance in naval actions, where it always has so great a share.'

After a careful perusal of the Count's description of the surrender of Ulm, we find the disputed point of *Mack's* treachery still a matter of some doubt; for although the general tendency of the account is to acquit him, such very strong circumstances appear in the state-papers inserted in the notes, that the usual opinion in England seems to be the most probable. The report of the staff-officer, (*Segur*,) whom Napoleon sent to treat with *Mack*, is an interesting document, and is given in full at the end of the volume. *Mack* published a general order on the 17th of October, in which he denounced the heaviest punishments against any one who should presume to use the word *surrender*; and in which he stated to his army that the French were in a most dreadful condition from the want of provisions, and from the continued severity of the weather. Now this paper is singularly contrasted by the fact that Count *Segur* had been with *Mack* on the night before, and that Prince *Lichtenstein* was consequently sent to Napoleon to treat for the delivery of the place and of the Austrian army; while, to complete the matter, General *Mack* himself went soon afterward to the French head-quarters, and acknowledged that his situation was so desperate that he was obliged to accept the terms offered. Thus fell Ulm; and thus were dishonored thirty thousand of the flower of the Austrian army, who marched out of the place with sixty pieces of cannon and forty stands of colours, led by eighteen Generals.

'Napoleon, surrounded by his staff and by his guard, stood before the fire of a bivouac, established on the edge of a rock which overlooked the town, and for five hours witnessed this fine army defiling at his feet. He called all the Austrian Generals to him, and detained them till the column had completely passed, shewing them much attention, and conversing alternately with each.'—
'Under the semblance of calmness, he was intoxicated with his glory, and received with avidity, amid this imposing scene, that most flattering of homages, the admiration of the conquered. In defiling under the rock, the heads of the Austrian columns slackened

ened their march to contemplate him. — In the ranks of the French army, nothing but the liveliest expressions of enthusiasm were heard; and never was the confidence or the devotion of soldiers manifested more strongly. “*The little Corporal*,” said they, “*has found out a new way of making war; he uses our legs more than our bayonets.*”

General Mack witnessed this disgrace, and whenever any of the French officers spoke to him in the crowd respecting the passing scene, he replied only by saying, “You are addressing the unhappy Mack.”

The fourteenth and last volume of this series brings the history of the war of 1805 down to the signing of the treaty of peace between France and Austria, at Presburg, on the 27th of December. The chief subjects discussed are the battles of Diernstein; the taking of Vienna; the battle of Hollabrunn; the blockade of Venice; *Gouvion Saint-Cyr*’s victory over Prince *Rohan* at Castel-Franco; the evacuation of the Tyrol; the junction of the armies of the Archdukes Charles and John, and of the French armies of Germany and Italy; the debarkation of the English and Russians on the territory of Naples, the fortresses of which were confided to the British troops; and, finally, the important battle of Austerlitz, which led to the peace above mentioned. We have already enlarged so much on various portions of this publication, that our limits will oblige us to pass by the subjects of least consequence to the future historian in this volume, and to confine our remarks principally to the description of the battle of Austerlitz and the occupation of Vienna.

Count D.’s history of the capture of the imperial city of the Germans is extremely well written, and a very spirited account is given of the surprize of the Austrian rear-guard, which occupied the bridge by which *Murat* passed. The most complete *ruse de guerre* was practised on this occasion with great success. The French columns marched directly on the bridge, with the Generals on foot at their head, and first encountered an advanced guard on the hither bank of the river. “*Don’t fire*,” cried the leaders, “*the armistice is signed*,” and the Austrian officer retired leisurely over the bridge to convey this intelligence, while the French marched on with the utmost coolness. At the middle of the bridge, which was covered with combustibles, a German officer had taken post by the side of a cannon, with the portfire in his hand, ready to give the signal for burning the bridge: but *Lannes*, with the greatest *sang froid*, walked up to him, and exclaimed, “*What are you about, don’t you see?*” — the officer turned to find out what he meant, but of course was immediately

diately seized, when the French instantly forced the passage, and removed the dangers which threatened them.

The position of Austerlitz, it appears, was selected by Napoleon some time previously to the action, and his manœuvres were so arranged as to render it a matter of necessity for his enemies to fight him on that spot.

‘ This important site for a battle,’ the author observes, ‘ was chosen on the very soundest principles of strategy. In it, the two great communications of this portion of Moravia, that of Nicklsburg with Olmutz, and that of Brunn with Hungary, intersect each other almost at right angles. Marshal *Soult*’s line of position completely covered all the right of that of Brunn, to two or three leagues’ distance, and left him completely master of all the outlets by which the enemy could possibly present themselves; while he sustained by his left the advanced guard of Prince *Murat*, and secured, with the light troops in advance of his right, the whole course of the March *, from Kradisch to the confluence with the Taya.’ — ‘ The choice of this position, of which *Soult* perceived the advantages at the first view, was a happy inspiration of Napoleon’s mind. He foresaw, with reason, that the allies would manœuvre by their left wing to cut off his communications with Vienna, and must therefore first throw themselves on the uneven plateau of Austerlitz. Having, some few days after his arrival at Brunn, personally reconnoitred that part of the country where the divisions of *Soult*’s corps were cantoned, he said to the Generals and other superior officers who followed him, “ Gentlemen, take much notice of this spot, and study this ground well, for in a few days it will be your field of battle.” ’

By a succession of manœuvres, which we have not space to follow, Napoleon completely deceived the allies, and, with an army inferior by fifteen or twenty thousand men to that of his opponents, drew them completely into his plans, as they manœuvred by their left to cut off his relations with Vienna.

‘ As soon as Napoleon found that the allies were acting on the offensive, and marching towards him, he successively withdrew his advanced posts and the whole of his advanced guard. *Soult* received an order to retire on Austerlitz, and to take up a position, with his three divisions, behind the wood of Turas, between Soloknitz and Schlapanitz: while *Bernadotte* was directed to repair to Brunn with the French divisions, and to leave General *Wrede* with the Bavarians and the Wirtembergers at Iglau, to check the corps which the Archduke Ferdinand had re-united in Bohemia. The light troops, in observation on the river March,

* The March is a large river which rises in the mountains of Moravia near Olmutz, and at a considerable distance south of Austerlitz meets the Taya, some leagues below the place where the road from Brunn to Vienna passes that river; and their united streams then flow to meet the Danube at Presburg.

were drawn back, and the three divisions of *Davoust* were directed on the position. *Mortier* remained with his divisions at *Vienna*, in order to be ready to support *Marmant*, if the Archduke Charles should oblige him to retire.

‘ Having made all these arrangements, by which his disposable force was in readiness to act under any circumstances, *Bonaparte* established his bivouac on a height which overlooked the whole position, notwithstanding the unevenness of the ground. From it, the whole of the enemy’s movement could be distinctly traced; though the French line was completely hidden from the allies by the contiguous villages, little lakes, and clumps of wood, which formed a chain of obstacles, and resembled a naturally retrenched camp.’

On the 30th of November *, *Napoleon* made a personal *réconnaissance*; and, as he observed the heights of *Pratzen*, in comparing that elevated, open, and advantageous position with the one which he had chosen, he turned to the Generals who accompanied him, and made use of these remarkable words, which in fact contained his whole design and the secret of his victory: “ If I wished only to prevent my opponents from passing, I should take post here, but then we should produce merely an ordinary battle: if, on the contrary, I refuse my right by retiring it towards *Brunn*, and the Russians abandon these heights in consequence, they will be lost without resource.”

The Count’s animated details of this momentous battle should be perused by our military readers with much attention. They contain several anecdotes of *Bonaparte*, which we have no doubt are genuine; and those that describe his conduct, with that of the soldiery towards him, on the eve of the action, are very beautifully told. — The manœuvres executed by the French army were perhaps the finest that ever occurred in a regular battle; and ‘ they offer,’ as Count *DUMAS* justly observes, ‘ to military men desirous of instruction in this difficult art, the most varied objects of study, and examples of almost every application of the best principles of tactics.’ †

We shall finish our report of the text of the work before us, by quoting one short anecdote for the amusement of all readers. *Bonaparte* met the Emperor of Austria by his desire after the battle, (which should have been styled *the battle of the Emperors*, three of those high personages having been

* There is evidently a mistake in the Count’s narration of this event, for he states that *Napoleon* visited the ground on the 30th of December.

† The plan of this battle is, however, very bad, and cannot convey the slightest information to the reader.

present,) at a bivouac near a mill on the road-side. Having invited Francis II. to come towards the fire of his bivouac, "*I receive you,*" said Napoleon, "*in the palace in which I have lived for these two months.*" — "*You derive such advantages from this habitation,*" replied Francis, smiling, "*that it must needs please you.*"

The notes and justificatory documents appended to the fourteenth volume, which chiefly relate to the taking of Vienna and the battle of Austerlitz, are of great importance. The first note is a curious examination of the actual situation of the power and resources of Great Britain, and contains even a better exposition of this country's stability and grandeur than that which has recently been given by M. Dupin.

'It is too late: the time and circumstances have passed by, when the torrent of its power and pretensions could have been checked. There is now no possibility of foreseeing to what they may extend, or what will be the destiny of the nations over which the British sceptre or British influence governs. We believe that nothing can shake the foundations of its grandeur, while its admirable constitution lasts, and while the system of the balance of power among the continental governments, which was established by England, and which she maintains and modifies at her will, shall endure.' — 'The only rivalry which Great Britain has to dread, in the time to come, is from that industry which is so insensibly increasing and strengthening among the people of both hemispheres, through the progress of knowledge and the general tendency towards liberty and the monarchical form of government, tempered by a national representative system. When the industry of the continental nations shall equal that of the English; when the naval means and force of the two Americas shall surpass that of Great Britain, causing new sources of riches to be discovered; then and then only that empire will insensibly decay, and be subjected, in its turn, to the fate of all human institutions.'

We leave our English readers to make their own comments on the probabilities here stated; and we must now dismiss the author before us by remarking, that these continuations of his essays are superior both in interest and style to their precursors, while they do not present such an abundance of political opinions, discussions, and vituperation. Whether M. DUMAS has taken our friendly advice on these latter points, we, of course, are not able to decide: but we hope that, in verging towards the conclusion of his work, he may thus continue to improve; and if he does, he may be assured that this history of the most extraordinary wars under which the world ever groaned will constitute a just claim for its author's entrance into the temple of Fame.

ART. VI. *De la Puissance Vitale, &c.; i. e. On the Vital Power, considered in its Physiological Functions in Man and all organized Beings: with an Inquiry into the Curative Powers of Nature, and the Means of prolonging Existence.* By J. J. VIREY, M.D., Professor of Natural History at the Royal Athenæum, &c. 8vo. pp. 507. Paris. 1823. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 10s. 6d.

PHYSIOLOGISTS are now well convinced that, in all their inquiries into the functions of the animal economy, the existence of a living principle is to be continually kept in view; and that every attempt to penetrate into the secrets of animated nature, on mere mechanical or chemical principles, must prove abortive. Hence we may readily perceive the great importance of the study of the vital power, under all the diversities of form which it assumes in man and other creatures, down even to the most simply organized structure of the vegetable kingdom. From the earliest periods of science, philosophers have exercised their ingenuity in endeavors to answer the question, *What is life?*: but its manifestations are so various, that no single definition has yet been formed which clearly expresses its essential character. The nearest approximation to accuracy is that which designates life as *the power that prevents the action of the chemical affinities of the elements of living bodies; and the abstraction of which is speedily followed by new combinations of the elementary particles, and the decomposition of the formerly animated substance.* This definition, however, will not apply in all instances; for many masses of vegetable matter suffer no chemical change, for a long series of years after they have been deprived of life; and some seeds, although no longer capable of germinating, present no evidence of having undergone any internal change of structure.

Dr. VIREY, whose work is now before us, appears wholly unambitious of entering the lists with those who have attempted to construct an accurate definition of life. 'Life,' says he, 'is the breath of the Divinity. It is a circular movement, supported and measured by time; — time, that infinite sphere of which God is the centre, and whose creatures, placed in the circumference, describe in their rapid orbit the circle of their destinies.' To the breath of Omnipotence, without doubt, all animated nature owes its life: but to the same source we must also ascribe the existence of every thing that is created. When we say the *breath of God*, we make use of a figurative expression, and one of a very bold character: for it would be absurd to suppose that life formed any part of the Divine essence, although it was produced by the

the *fiat* of Omnipotence. M. VIREY, however, appears disposed to adopt an opinion somewhat of this nature.

'There are but two beings,' he remarks, 'in the universe,—the worker and the work,—God and matter; for, if all life and motion flow from the *principle* of life and motion, it is the Deity himself who moves in all his creatures, and who is present in every place. This is the common soul by which all things are executed. *Spiritus intus alit*. It is by that alone that every thing breathes. It is manifest in the transformations of minerals, in the vegetation of trees, and the volition and sensation of animals; it is exercised by the ministry of nature, at all times, and in all places. Without God, matter would remain in a state of absolute and eternal death, and life be an immense carcase. The unanimous consent of all nations has consecrated the sentiment of the ancient Greek poet quoted by Saint Paul, *In Deo vivimus, movemur, et sumus*. It is attested by the daily evidence of our senses; for the fire, the light, and all the active substances in the universe, are impressed and penetrated by that force from which every thing in nature emanates.' (P. 36.)

Not contented with this doctrine of divine emanations, the author has testified his willingness to revive the idea of the animation of the globe: observing;

'We must not suppose that the materials which compose this terrestrial globe are in a state of death: the internal movements which they experience, the transformations which they undergo, the precipitations, fermentations, crystallizations, filtrations, deposits, disengagement of gases and vapours, and all the actions which take place within the bowels of the earth, prove beyond a doubt that there exist certain cosmic forces; and that from this source vegetables grafted on minerals draw their existence. The stone and metal, extracted from the mine and placed in a cabinet of natural history, are no longer the stone and metal of nature. They are like dried plants in the herbarium of the botanist. They have been deprived of their terreous or geocosmic life: they no longer experience internal changes, nor undergo any alterations, except from the air, the light, and the other agents which surround them. But the metallic veins, the *gangues*, and rocks, are formed and destroyed, combine, and are perpetually changing their composition, within the bowels of the earth. This vitality of mineral substances appears to us obscure and doubtful, because we are rarely witnesses of the mysterious revolutions of these abysses; because these operations are slow and successive, while man is transient and mortal; and because we perceive only for a few moments the surface of things, while the life of a mass of such terrible magnitude as the terrestrial globe must have very lengthened periods, proportioned to the vastness of its nature. As we can be acquainted only with the crust of the globe, and merely perceive with difficulty its most superficial strata, which we observe to undergo various changes in the course of ages, it is natural to

believe that the world may be organized, and possess its peculiar life; for although the materials on the surface appear to us to be dead, it is because they are its epidermis, its inorganic crust, similar to what we see on other living bodies. We have therefore no right to conclude, from the bare inspection of the surface of the globe, that it is not an animated body. These rocks, this ground, which appear to be unchangeable in their nature, are so only in relation to us;—the terreous life is too profound, and has features too vast, to be perceived by our limited faculties.' (P. 28.)

These extracts will in some measure enable our readers to appreciate the lively and imaginative character of Dr. VIREY, and will convince them that he is more remarkable for the fancy and florid eloquence of his descriptions, than for the correctness and severity of his reasoning. Yet, notwithstanding the palpable extravagance of many of his opinions, we are happy to observe that he every where proclaims the existence of an omnipotent and beneficent Deity, and denies the spontaneous origin of life as inconsistent with our actual knowledge.

'I know not how it is,' he says, 'but the deeper I descend into this profound and mysterious abyss, the less can I conceive the existence of the life and organized structure of beings so perfectly adapted to their destination, without an intelligent power supremely active;—without this *primum movens*,—this centre of action of the whole universe, which communicates its impulse to the sun and the stars, as well as the poor worm that writhes in the dust,—without a God.'

As if fearful, however, that the avowal of such opinions might expose him to ridicule and reproach, he defends himself in the following manner:

'Let it not be supposed that timidity in avowing my opinions, or an ostentatious affectation of devotion, so common in the present day for the purpose of obtaining advancement in a hypocritical world, has determined me to reject the idea of spontaneous generation as implying materialism. The philosophical freedom of my opinions, at all times, places me above any such imputation. If I declare my belief that life cannot be explained without admitting the existence of a Deity, it is at my own risk, and under pain of being arraigned at the bar of philosophy, that I make this profession. Of all doctrines, not susceptible of demonstration, but in my opinion most probable, that of the soul of the world, or an universal vivifying principle, not such as the ancients conceived, but such as is consistent with the actual state of science, appears to me to be the hypothesis most capable of affording a satisfactory explanation of the phenomena of life throughout all nature. I cannot believe that life consists in slender combinations of structure in this or that creature: it is in my opinion a more general phenomenon; a spirit which, like electricity or heat, is capable

capable of diffusing itself through the whole universe, and of there displaying more or less fully its energies and its motions, according to the primordial disposition of matter. Life is in all probability not confined to our planet, nor to our solar system: it must extend its effects to all the possible circumstances of organic combinations, within the infinite spheres which fill the heavens. In my opinion, it is to the particular physics of animated bodies what universal gravitation is to general physics. These sublime forces are, 'if I do not deceive myself, attributes of the Deity, — the Eternal Source of movement and of life.' (P. 204.)

Are we to consider it as indicative of the state of opinions among the *savans* of Paris, that this simple avowal of a belief in the existence of a Deity, wrapped up as it is in a kind of Platonic mysticism, is thus followed by so labored a defence?

M. VIREY has treated the subject of life on a more extended plan, and in a more popular and amusing manner, than any writer with whom we are acquainted. Much of the present volume has been already submitted to the public in different productions of the author, but in a more disjointed and imperfect form. He now arranges his subject under four principal heads, to each of which he dedicates a division of his work. In the first, he considers living and organized nature: in the second, he endeavors to explain the causes of the vital power, and details the history of its manifestations in animals and plants: in the third, he discusses the curative powers of nature, the *vis medicatrix* of the *Stahlians*, and in the fourth, he considers the prolongation of life, its causes, its ratio in the different orders of living beings, and the means of attaining longevity.

The author has given rather a vivid description of the perpetual circulation of organizable matter, *turning*, as he expresses it, *round the two poles of generation and destruction*: but we have not space to present our readers with this lively passage; in which, indeed, we find nothing essentially true that has not been often said before. In his argument against the absolute death of organized matter, by which we suppose its annihilation is meant, he has allowed himself to be rather carried away by his subject. 'It would appear,' says he, 'that there is no real death in the system of organized bodies; and that what in our view seems to be such is a sort of latent or quiescent life.' (P. 195.) This is truly to pervert language, and to introduce confusion where none previously existed, at least to the common sense of mankind.

Among other opinions which Dr. V. has adopted on mere hypothetical grounds, is his assertion that a gradation of more highly organized food produces a greater degree of intelligence.

telligence. 'We observe,' he remarks, 'that animals which subsist on flesh, or on other animals, are raised to a greater degree of perfection than the herbivorous races of which they make their prey.' (P. 44.) The elephant and the horse, however, are not inferior in intelligence to the tiger and the hyæna; the monkey lives on fruits and seeds; and even man himself is not wholly carnivorous.

These remarks on the nutrition of the animal body lead us to mention a singular opinion held by the author on the subject of the support of vitality. He observes: 'It is known that the warm steams which arise from the carcase of a slaughtered animal are vivifying; hence butchers are in general corpulent and plethoric.' (Note, p. 285.) It is scarcely necessary for us to say that it is not this vapor or exhaling life, as the author would perhaps term it, which fattens the butcher, but the abundance of animal food which is always within his reach. — The peculiarity of M. VIREY's opinions is still farther developed when he speaks of the communication of vitality from one individual to another, in the intercourses of society. With him, pity for a weak or unfortunate being is only a portion of the soul, which is diffused to fortify that of the object of this sentiment, and to re-establish the equilibrium of life: — love is an exchange of the soul between the sexes; — and friendship is a sort of mutual transfusion of life. Anger, ambition, bravery, &c., are merely sensibility overflowing beyond our frame: while fear, sadness, envy, and hatred, are retractions of the soul to the inmost recesses of the body. 'Old age draws near to the young, who possess a large share of life, in order to repair the ruins of its own, but at the expence of its youthful companions: thus, intercourse with the infirm is unwholesome, and we grow old by living with the old.' (P. 285.) We know not to what we can ascribe such opinions, unless to a belief in something akin to animal magnetism. Although we had once the satisfaction of being magnetized, and can therefore speak from experience, we do not believe in the power of communicating, by any manipulations, the vital energy from one living body to another: yet we must say that we felt strongly the influence of the magnetizer, in producing an universal excitement over the whole cutaneous surface, and an increased flow of energy to the nervous papillæ of the skin.

The fanciful character of Dr. VIREY's mind has induced him to consider the subject of life not only in reference to the objects which surround us on this globe, but to connect it with the revolutions of the earth, with the surrounding heavenly bodies, and even with the comets which at intervals visit our sphere.

sphere. There is something sublime and elevating in these vague speculations, which, although they lead but to barren conjecture, serve to regale and gratify the mind. The phenomena of life, as they are now presented to us, are admirably adapted to the existing order of things; and if we go back to the successive catastrophes which this globe has suffered, we may naturally suppose that these awful convulsions, and the subsequent revivals of animation, were accompanied by corresponding alterations in the manifestations of life. In like manner, if we suppose other planets to be filled with living creatures, life most probably there presents features altogether different from those with which we are familiar, and such as are peculiarly suited to the circumstances under which it has been created.

Dr. V. appears to be strongly impressed with the idea that the period, in which the earth traverses her orbit, serves as the means of limiting the duration of existence in the beings who people its surface; and he extends the same notion to the duration of life in other planets, supposing that they too are the abodes of living creatures. The belief that our earthly destiny is thus chained to the revolutions of the globe has something in it of grandeur; and yet it is altogether fanciful, as we must at once admit when we reflect on the vast diversity in the natural duration of life among the multitude of beings which this earth presents, in all the gradations from the insect up to man.

The *vis medicatrix*, or curative power of nature, has found a keen advocate in the person of M. VIREY: though it must be admitted that he has presented a sufficiently fair summary of the arguments, which have been advanced by those who hold a contrary opinion. In the present day, we think a tolerably just estimate is formed, at least in this country, of the efforts which the natural powers of the animal frame are capable of making to subdue disease. We shall not therefore enter on this wide field of discussion; nor attack Dr. V. in what we decidedly conceive to be by far the weakest part of his volume, both with regard to the credibility of the facts adduced, and to the inferences which he draws from them. We are required, however, to state that we observed with pain the sneers with which he salutes those who have, in his opinion, abandoned the path of nature; and the sarcastic bitterness with which he exclaims; 'Let us make trial of pills of *lapis infernalis*; let us administer internally the preparations of arsenic, and the most powerful poisons; let us terrify nature, and overthrow her perverted powers. How dear may such unreasonable science cost humanity!' (P. 338.) The

history of the first introduction of mercury into medicine, of antimony, and even of Peruvian bark, will furnish abundant instances of parallel prejudice, unscientific bigotry, and unfounded alarm.

On the subject of longevity, Dr. V. has brought forwards a rich collection of interesting facts, the general tendency of which is to make us contented with our lot in the temperate regions of Europe; and the power which we ourselves possess of prolonging life, by pursuing a virtuous course of conduct, is illustrated in strong and often eloquent language. Perhaps the author appears nowhere to greater advantage than in his remarks on the state of moral feeling most favorable to longevity; (p. 475.) which are highly creditable to his principles as a man, and afford a pleasing specimen of the flowery rhetoric with which he is accustomed to treat his subject.

M. VIREY is already known to the public as a successful and somewhat voluminous author. The tone of his writings, indeed, is popular and amusing, rather than argumentative and philosophical: but in his present work he has exhibited an interesting and extensive sketch of a highly important subject, which has by most writers been too much enveloped in the subtleties of metaphysical disquisition. If we have found it our duty to censure his fanciful speculations and hypothetical views, and his unsuccessful attempts to revive some doctrines which have become obsolete from their want of value, we must on the other hand declare that these defects are accompanied by much redeeming merit, which has rendered the perusal of the book a pleasing task to us; and which cannot fail, we are convinced, to cause it to be read with similar feelings of gratification by others.

ART. VII. *Vie de Jules Cesar, &c.*; i. e. The Life of Julius Cæsar, followed by a View of his Campaigns, and Critical Observations. By M. ALPH. DE BEAUCHAMP, Knight of the Royal Order of the Legion of Honour. 8vo. Paris. 1823. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 7s. 6d.

THIS contribution to our stock of biography was originally intended for insertion in the *Biographie Universelle*, a work which we have frequently noticed: but, having been drawn up too much at length for the limits of a dictionary, the author withdrew his manuscript; which he farther amplified by a studious critical survey of Cæsar's different battles. M. DE BEAUCHAMP is a military man, and is certainly well qualified as a tactician to appreciate the strategic skill of his hero. The peculiar value of this biography accordingly consists

sists in the exact justice which has been done to the errors and resources of Cæsar as a *General*: while others have described more particularly his moral habits, have brought into fuller display his admirable accomplishments and talents, and have painted with more liberality the philanthropic character of his ambition. The writings of Julius Cæsar himself, of Suetonius, and of Plutarch, are the authorities principally followed, and most frequently cited: but much tributary information has been derived from Cicero, Velleius Paterculus, Dion, and Appian. The style is clear, natural, and appropriately modelled not on that of the more eloquent historians, but on that of the author of the Commentaries.

Julius Cæsar was descended from a patrician family, which enjoyed an hereditary priesthood of Venus: the name is supposed to be etymologically connected with *cæsaries*, and to signify *hairy*. In early life, he was much addicted to pleasure. His first campaign was in Bithynia, and procured for him a triumph and the consulship. He was generous and expensive; in his politics, democratic, and attached to the party of Marius. Sylla would have proscribed him, but his family-connections secured for him a pardon. To the conspiracy of Catiline, he lent a more cautious protection, and jested in the senate at the alarm of Cicero. By a coalition with Pompey and Crassus, he obtained the government of Gaul, where he raised a vast fortune by heavy contributions, and whence he led a veteran and attached army back into Italy. Crassus having perished in Parthia, Pompey and Cæsar were become the leaders of the opposite parties in the senate, and in the nation. Pompey leaned to the aristocracy, and affected to support the constitution as habitually conducted: while Cæsar leaned to the democracy, and probably intended to realize the reform suggested by Drusus, the colleague of Caius Gracchus, of granting a tribunitian representation to the principal Italian cities. For the purpose of legitimating the innovations projected, he seems to have hesitated between assuming the title of Dictator, or that of King; since he could only hope to reverse the patrician majority of his adversaries by a new creation of senators from the equestrian and tribunitian orders. As, under the Roman constitution, it was the appropriate office of an *interrex*, or occasional king, to fill up vacancies in the magistracy, the preference which Cæsar is supposed to have internally entertained for this title, and which Anthony designed to confer on him by tendering to him the constitutional crown at the Lupercals, is indicative of his aspiring not to despotic but to legitimate authority. At the time of passing the Rubicon, also, Cæsar brought forwards the pretext that
the

the privileges of the house of tribunes had been violated in the persons of M. Antonius and Q. Cassius Longinus; so that the charge of his intending to betray the interests of the friends of liberty, whom he represented, is a surmise not reposing on any clear fact of usurpation. His aristocratic assassins took him off before he had ruled five months, and it suited not his successor Augustus to praise liberal views in which he did not himself participate: but it seems most probable that, if the life of Cæsar had been respected, he would have conferred a sort of British constitution on the Roman empire.

As this part of the life of Cæsar has usually been narrated with the unfavorable coloring given to it by the patrician party, and as it appears more to require the re-examination of the critical historian than any other of his actions, we shall transcribe M. BEAUCHAMP's relation; not so much because we approve it, as because it is by contrasting dissonant interpretations that we may prepare the way for equitable animadversion.

Cæsar, meanwhile, preserved in his demands the appearance of justice, and offered to lay down his arms if Pompey would do the same: but to dismiss his army, and leave that of Pompey in existence, he observed, would be, under the pretext of accusing him of aspiring to the tyranny, to facilitate to the other party the opportunity of assuming it. Curio, when he made these proposals to the people in the name of Cæsar, was singularly applauded. Anthony, one of the tribunes, produced in the assembly the letters of Cæsar; and Fabius, who handed them over to the consuls, had some difficulty in getting them to be read in the senate: — it required the pressing request of the entire college of tribunes. After the reading, the consuls for the ensuing year, Marcellus and Lentulus, whose functions were then commencing, would not suffer a deliberation on the offers of Cæsar, but opened the debate on the state of the nation. The historian Dion, in this instance at variance with Plutarch, says that no one in the senate desired that Pompey should dismiss his troops, but that all the senators, except Cælius and Curio, wished for Cæsar to dismiss *his*. The consul Marcellus proposed, if Cæsar refused to lay down his arms, to declare him to be an enemy of his country: but Lentulus exclaimed that arms, not decrees, must be employed against a rebel.

Another letter was received from Cæsar, which appeared yet more moderate; he offered to give up every other claim, if the government of Cisalpine Gaul was left to him, together with that of Illyria, and two legions, until he had obtained a second consulship. Pompey affected to yield to this proposal: but the consul Lentulus would not acquiesce: he treated the tribunes Anthony and Cassius as seditious persons, and thrust them indignantly out of the senate. They fled to Cæsar, with Curio and Cælius. This was giving to Cæsar a specious pretext; and he made use of it to irritate his soldiers, by exhibiting to them Roman magistrates obliged to fly from

from the city in hired carriages, and disguised in the dress of slaves, from the fear of being discovered.

Cæsar then deemed it necessary to begin his enterprize; and, perceiving that the first attack which he projected would not require a strong force, but that he might hope to astonish and confound his enemies by his boldness and celerity in falling on them when they least expected it, — all at once, leaving his army beyond the Alps, he entered Italy with only the thirteenth legion, and ordered his captains to seize on Arminium (now Rimini) in Cispadane Gaul, but to avoid as far as possible all tumult and bloodshed.

The whole senate, and even Cicero himself, at first treated this march as the step of a madman: but its suddenness disconcerted Pompey at Rome. The consul Marcellus, traversing the forum, and followed by the senate, went solemnly to Pompey, and said, — ‘I command you to lend aid to the country, and for that purpose to employ the legions which you have, and to levy others.’ Lentulus repeated the same order. Pompey then began to raise soldiers: but the people in general refused to enlist, and the few who came forwards seemed to obey their patrons rather than their inclination. The public voice was loudly raised in behalf of compromise and conciliation.

Cæsar, who had thunderstruck his enemies by thus advancing towards Rome, arrived on the banks of the Rubicon, which was the limit of his government, at the head of five thousand infantry and three hundred horse. There he is said to have paused, and to have reflected on the magnitude and audacity of his enterprize; aware that, on passing this little stream, he would be violating the laws, and be levying war against his country. At last, listening only to his ambition, the conqueror of the Gauls rode foremost into the river, exclaiming: “The die is cast; let us go where the will of the gods and the injustice of our enemies compel us.” (P. 86.) —

The taking of Rimini had opened to Cæsar all the gates of war. Pompey had but feeble garrisons in his strong places; and Cæsar carried all before him. Libonius was driven from Etruria, and Thermus from Umbria. Corfinium, and Domitius the commander there, fell without resistance into his hands. After having taken into pay the soldiers of Domitius, and offering to that commander the liberty of rejoining Pompey, Cæsar marched straight towards Rome.

Pompey, struck with astonishment, and aware perhaps of his relative unpopularity there, abandoned the capital of the world, and ordered the senate to follow him to Brundisium; where he soon found himself besieged, with all the grandees of the state, who considered his camp as the nation. Having collected a great number of ships, he closed the gates of the city with barricades, and dug trenches across the entrance of the streets, in which pointed stakes were planted; and he left open only two roads leading to the haven, which he palisadoed. He then shipped off the consuls for Dyrrachium, and sent his father-in-law Scipio and his son Cneius Pompeius into Syria, to provide military and naval aid.

aid. When Cæsar appeared before Brundisium, the consuls were gone; and he determined to close the harbour with a dyke, in order to prevent Pompey from following. After a labor of nine days, the dyke being then half finished, the vessels which had landed the consuls at Dyrrachium returned; when Pompey embarked the rest of his troops in them; and, giving a sudden signal to the sentinels on the walls, they too joined their comrades, and Pompey set sail with them for Epirus.

This embarkation was deemed by Pompey's party a prudent measure, because they mistrusted the disposition of the people in Rome, and conceived that they should there be delivered up to Cæsar. Still this abandonment of Italy cost the party much loss of reputation for strength; which, as *Montesquieu* observes, is power itself, especially in civil wars. Cæsar would have pursued Pompey if he had possessed a fleet: but this not being the case, he returned to Rome.

He found the city tranquil, and behaved to his enemies with great mildness and popularity. The tribune Metellus forbade him, in the name of the law, to touch the public treasury: but Cæsar answered, "While arms clash, laws are mute." Metellus insisted, but Cæsar threatened to put him to death unless he opened the gates of the treasury; adding, "Young man, you know it costs me more to say this than to do it." — Every thing then gave way; and Cæsar proceeded to make war on the republic with its own treasures; after having completed in sixty days the conquest of Italy, almost without shedding a drop of blood.

Clemency and generosity were the basis of his policy during and after the civil war. He at once permitted every man to remain neuter who was contented thus to avoid risks. In a letter which he wrote to his confidants Oppius and Balbus, he speaks thus: "I learn with pleasure that you approve the manner in which the affair of Corfinium passed:" [when the troops of Domitius were taken into Cæsar's pay, and that officer was treated with great friendliness:] "I shall the more willingly follow your advice, as I am decidedly a friend to mildness; — I hope even to reconcile Pompey. Let us try to recover all hearts, and, if that be not possible, let us at least seek permanently to secure our victory; no one of our predecessors could rule long after having rendered himself odious by cruelty, except indeed Sylla, whom I shall not imitate. Let us follow other maxims, and place in moderation and generosity the best display of victory. I have already thought of numerous expedients, and crowds of others may be formed. Do you consider of this on your part." But if no man was more the master of his resentful passions than Cæsar, at least he sacrificed to one, namely, ambition: *that* would never permit him to lay down his arms, as it also prevented Pompey from ceding to him the empire.' (P. 92.)

In looking back on this narrative, which is certainly not drawn up with the view of apologizing for Cæsar, it must surely be admitted that the first violation of the constitution, as established by law, consisted in the arbitrary expulsion from

from the senate of the tribunes of the people. Lentulus, the consul, committed this violation by ejecting Anthony and Cassius: they had a plea for calling on the friends of representative institutions to arm in behalf of the outraged rights of the people; and their maintenance was become a sacred duty. Now it does not appear that Cæsar was not all along intent on restoring to the democracy their legal privileges. The assassins accused him of intending to despotize: but, if such had been his plan, he could not have afforded to put trust in clemency; and, like the triumvirate which prepared the monarchy of Augustus, he must have had recourse to proscription if he had hoped to reign by individual power, and without the aid of constitutional institutions. Cicero facilitated the ascent of Augustus to power from the moment when that young man had broken with Anthony, who especially represented the tribunitian interest; which proves that the patrician party were much less impatient of a master than of plebeian influence and ascendancy. They assassinated Cæsar, therefore, in order to prevent the re-establishment of a tribunate with increased privileges and ascendancy.

The amours of Cæsar are insufficiently noticed in this work: they could not, indeed, all be detailed with decorum: but those attachments and divorces which influenced his fortunes required specific mention. His very love for Cleopatra is almost buried in a note. The literary achievements of Cæsar, also, are perhaps too much overlooked in this biography. His reform of the calendar by the advice of Sosigenes of Alexandria, which took place in the same year in which he first landed in Great Britain, deserved a more careful notice. His lost work *De Analogiâ* is not mentioned. The reasons for suspecting that he translated from the Greek the tragedy of Oedipus, preserved in Seneca's collection, if not weighty, deserved some notice; and the various traces of his admirable Orations imperiously required a careful assemblage: but here is only a speech preserved by Sallust. His Commentaries form but a small portion of his excellent writings.

The appendix to this Life, which separately examines the campaigns of Cæsar, decidedly forms the most original and most valuable part of the volume; and it will be consulted with advantage by future biographers, who, however strong in literary criticism, may happen to want a practical knowledge of warfare. On the whole, this is not a superfluous republication of notorious facts, but an instructive critique on the military exploits of Cæsar. — A portrait is prefixed, copied from an antique bust, which does not place before us "the hooked-nosed fellow of Rome."

ART. VIII. *Nouvelle Force Maritime, &c.; i. e.* On a new Maritime Force, and an Application of that Force to some Parts of the Land Service, &c. &c. By H. J. PAIXHANS, Chief of Battalion of the Royal Corps of Artillery. 4to. pp. 458. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 1*l.* 7*s.*

WE may state generally the object of the present work from the leading words of the advertisement prefixed to it; viz. to shew how ships of war of the greatest power (or first-rate) may be easily destroyed by smaller vessels, using a new species of naval ordnance; and to prove that it is possible to employ a system of naval *materiel*, which shall be less expensive, more powerful, and better suited to France than that which is now in common use. The means by which these purposes are proposed to be carried into effect may also be explained in few words; viz. to replace the present ship-guns, 12, 24, 36 pounders, &c. by carronades, howitzers, and mortars of larger calibre; to increase the number of these new pieces beyond the present rates; to employ hollow shot, and shells, instead of solid balls; to reduce the windage; and to modify the charges.

Such a plan for destroying the superiority of the British naval power will perhaps call forth a smile from our admirals and captains, who have so often witnessed the effect of our solid balls on the hulls of the enemy's ships: but it may not be amiss to examine to what extent the proposed innovations, however inadequate to the accomplishment of what a Frenchman must necessarily consider as such a desirable object, may be deserving of a candid and impartial trial.

The author has collected together, in his twenty-fourth chapter, a very imposing list of names of persons, whose opinions seem to have been decidedly pronounced in favor of hollow shot and shells. Among these are *Vauban, Cormontagne, Belidor, Gomer, Andréossi, Lombard, Napoleon, Bousmard, Scharnhorst, Monge, Borda, Laplace, Gassendi*, and Colonel Jones * of the Royal Engineers, who conducted many of the sieges in Spain under the Duke of Wellington; and who, in his work on those campaigns, speaks of the dread that our soldiers manifested at the shells of the French. Besides the above names, the author quotes many others, of considerable weight with naval and military men, although

* According to the usual inaccuracies of French writers in spelling foreign names, particularly English names, this officer is called Colonel *John-John*; and but for some little additions, we should have been wholly at a loss to guess the name of the person intended.

perhaps not known to the general class of readers; giving abstracts from their works, or from reports in which they have had occasion to state their opinions on this subject.

Such authorities, relative to the advantages of shells as weapons of destruction, ought certainly to prevent us from forming too hastily a contrary opinion, merely from the circumstance that we have found solid balls sufficient for our purposes in the successful and brilliant naval actions which we sustained during the late wars. The work, however, is wholly French, is particularly addressed to the French Minister of Marine, and of course only demands ameliorations in the naval *materiel* of that power; which, whether the present plan be adopted or not, appears by the following queries, if there be any ground for them, to stand much in want of reformation. After having pointed out various defects, the author says;

‘ Would it not be at least useful to get rid of many inconsistencies which may be remarked in the existing artillery? Why, for instance, have we, for throwing 36 pound balls, pieces weighing only two thousand five hundred pounds, while our 12 pounders weigh three thousand pounds? Why do we see, in the same vessel, batteries of 18 and 24 pounders placed between two batteries of 36 pounders; or, in frigates, a battery of 36 pounders placed above one of 18 pounders? Why, in the same ship, employ many different calibres to produce that destruction which must be the same object with all? Why are the weights of our different carronades expressed by the series of 67, 68, 66, 64, and 74 times the weight of their respective balls? a series neither ascending nor descending,’ &c.

It cannot be questioned that many of the above inconsistencies, from which the English artillery is not wholly free, might be advantageously abolished by an uniform system: but whether it ought to be supplanted by the particular one recommended by M. PAIXHANS we are not prepared to say. He, indeed, like most other inventors and projectors, forms the most sanguine expectations from the adoption of the system which he recommends; and we have no doubt that a part of it is intitled, if not to immediate adoption, at least to a candid and impartial trial.

The ordinary armament of a French ship of the line, nominally of 74 guns, is actually composed of 86 pieces of the following description; viz.

28 guns, 36 pounders,
30 ditto, 18 pounders,
14 ditto, 8 pounders,
14 carronades, 36 pounders;

and

and the total weight of balls which the ship can project from the 86 pieces is 2250 lbs.

According to the system proposed, the same vessel would be thus armed :

28 of the ordinary 36 pounders, re-bored to carry 48 lbs. shells; or 28 new howitzer cannon, for throwing the same shells, and having the usual weight of the present 18 and 24 pounders.

30 howitzer cannons, of 48 lbs. shells, having the weight of the present 18 pounders.

28 carronades for shells of 48 lbs., having the weight of the common 36 lbs. carronade.

These pieces, each throwing 48 lbs.* shells, weighing 35 lbs., would project from all the battery $35 \times 86 = 3010$ lbs.; which is one-third more of real weight than at present. This the author considers as a gain of power to that amount: but the greatest advantage, he conceives, will arise from the explosion of the shells when imbedded in the sides of the enemy's vessel.

The superiority of the proposed armament, great as it is for 74 guns ships, will be proportionally greater for ships of three decks; because a vessel of this description, which now carries 126 guns, can only project from the whole of her guns and carronades 3000 lbs. weight of metal; whereas, when armed according to the new principle, she would throw 4400 lbs. of shells of the calibre of 48 lbs.

Finally, what superiority may not be farther derived from this new armament, if we add what is far from being impracticable, mortar-cannon of the calibre of 80 or even of 200 lbs.*

The present armament of a French frigate, designed for 24 pounders, according to the regulations of 1807, is 50 pieces of ordnance; viz.

30 guns, 24 pounders,
12 ditto, 12 pounders,
8 carronades, 36 pounders:

the total weight of metal from all the guns amounting to 1200 lbs. Instead of this, according to the proposed system there would be,

30 howitzer-cannons of the weight of 24 pounders, but carrying shells of a calibre equal to a 48 pounder.

20 carronades of the same calibre, having only the actual weight of the carronades of 36 pounders:

the total weight of metal from all the guns amounting to 1750 pounds, being nearly one half greater than at present.

* This would be the weight of the solid ball of the same diameter.

For a frigate designed for 18 pounders, the usual number of pieces of all calibres is 44; viz.

28 guns, 18 pounders,

2 ditto, 8 pounders,

14 carronades, 24 pounders;

the whole weight of metal being 890 lbs. from all the guns. —

This armament, according to the system proposed, would be :

28 howitzer cannon, equal in weight to 18 pounders, but carrying shells of the calibre of 48 pounders,

2 shell carronades, ditto,

14 ditto, carrying shells of the calibre of 36 pounders;

the total weight of the projectiles from all the pieces being 1490 lbs., instead of 890 lbs.

It is difficult, perhaps, without actual experiment, for the best artillerists to state decidedly what advantages, or whether any, would be gained by the change here proposed. The ranges of the shells would, we conceive, be necessarily less than at present: but, at an actionable distance, it is highly probable that much mischief might be done to an enemy with this species of arms. The author does not appear to have performed any experiments, but he has suggested several, which might be made at an inconsiderable expence, considering the national importance of the inquiry.

We have principally confined our remarks to that part of the work which treats of the proposed innovation in the nature, number, and calibre of the ordnance: but the writer carries his inquiries respecting the naval *materiel* to a considerable length; examining the forms and appointments of vessels, and the probable advantages of steam-navigation; — on which latter subject he has collected a mass of very useful and interesting information. He estimates, apparently from well-established data, the velocities of a great variety of steam-vessels, and hence infers the probable velocity that might be given to steam-frigates and larger ships. — On the whole, with a great number of imaginary schemes and sanguine expectations, little likely perhaps ever to be submitted to experiment, and still less to succeed to the full expectations of the author, the work manifests also a considerable share of bold conception and originality of idea; which, as we have before observed, ought not to be rejected as altogether impracticable and visionary.

On the subject of Congreve-rockets, M. PAIXHANS does not shew the same spirit of impartial examination that marks most other parts of his book; for, though the value of this weapon may be over-rated in the English service, it is far from being the mere bug-bear that the author represents. He

states that, of 1000 rockets thrown at the siege of Dantzic, (on the 10th of October, 1813,) 990 never entered within the limits of the town. On this point, we shall content ourselves with observing that we have witnessed the rocket-practice in the marshes below Woolwich; and that the accuracy with which they were directed to the target, at 1200 yards' distance, was far beyond what could possibly be imagined by a person who had never seen them employed, and little inferior to the best howitzer-practice. As to their power, which M. PAIX-HANS likewise professes to despise, we can say that there is in the model-room, at the Royal Arsenal of Woolwich, a remarkable instance of their terrible effects when they strike their object, in a solid post of oak about 18 inches square, which was penetrated by a 32 pounder rocket at the distance of 1800 yards from the point of discharge, the case being still imbedded in the oak; and which, in a bombardment, could scarcely have failed to involve in flames any building that it had entered.

Perhaps, it is not necessary for us to go more at length into the contents of this publication: for, although it certainly treats on a subject of great national importance, in its present form it is merely speculative, and of little interest to the general class of readers; who will feel themselves wholly incompetent to form an opinion of the advantages or disadvantages of the proposed innovations. We would, however, seriously recommend the work to the attention of those who are best able to form a judgment of its merits or demerits, and who possess also the means of submitting some of the author's ideas to the test of experiment.

ART. IX. *Sylla*, &c.; i. e. *Sylla*; a Tragedy: in Five Acts. By E. JOUY, Member of the Institute. 8vo. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 6s.

ART. X. *Régulus*, &c.; i. e. *Regulus*; a Tragedy: in Three Acts. By M. LUCIEN ARNAULT, Son of the Author of "*Marius*" and of "*Germanicus*." 8vo. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 6s.

It would be difficult to find a more accurate standard of the intellectual progress of a country, than that which is furnished by its drama: for no invention of man more clearly reflects the variety of his powers, the dignity and grandeur of his genius, the extent and subtlety of his understanding. It is the mirror which exhibits, in living and substantial forms, all the complex operations of the mind; and it presents to our view the world of sensible images, which poetry lends to serious
and

and philosophical thinking, clothed in such colors and linked in such combinations, as are most certain of exciting sympathies equal in force and degree to those that are produced by the contemplation of real events and sufferings. Intrinsically, it is neither more nor less than a view of the general principles of human action, embodied in peculiar individuals under the influence of certain predominating passions; and it is obvious that these principles, and the workings of these passions, must be uniform, and prevail as much in one country or province as in another. Still, however, the dramatic art, even among nations which have made nearly the same advances in the other arts and institutions of life, seldom exhibits a steady or unvarying analogy. Social man is nearly the same in every polished community: but the drama, which is his moral portrait, is varied *ad infinitum*.

Whence has this variety arisen? The elements of the art must be found in universal nature, and must therefore be the same: but, in some countries, the despotism of fashion, usurping the place and superseding the rights of nature, has erected an arbitrary legislation for the theatre, and moulded the form of dramatic fiction by artificial rules and conventions. We have only to cross a streight, or a river, or a ridge of mountains, to find an entirely new dramatic system.

The distinctions between the English and the French dramatic schools might lead us into an interminable discussion: but we must pause a little on the subject. Whatever be the sources of that influence which Shakspeare has so long preserved over the hearts and affections of his countrymen, the characteristics of his drama are marked and striking. They consist chiefly of a certain animation and rapidity, of sudden strokes and transitions of fortune, for which it would be vain to look in the French theatre. His agents are not exclusively taken from the palaces of the great, or the circles of the polite, but seem to have been selected at random from the living repertoires of nature; where high and low, princes and peasants, courtiers and buffoons, jostle each other in endless contrast and unexhausted variety. In the mingled chaos of events and passions; — in the strife of purposes and projects with the accidents which retard and defeat them, of emotions which exalt us to the highest elevation of our nature, and of crimes and vices which deface the characters of our high destinations, and degrade us into merely animal existence; — in sources which lie far beyond the narrow limits of artificial and conventional life, and to which he was guided by the unerring instincts of nature; — he has found the great and striking materials of his drama. From all this, however,

the Parisian critic shrinks with horror. He congratulates himself on the exclusive monopoly of dramatic excellence; and he condemns as monstrous and barbarous the sublimest tragedies of other countries, because their incidents and passions are not dealt out according to French weight and measure, and because they agitate or delight us according to the genuine workings of nature, rather than according to the rules and precedents of art. To remind him that the legitimate effects of the drama are produced, to the most intense degree, by the works which he thus despises, would be to no purpose: he will still continue to shrug his shoulders and curl his nose at the grand and beautiful master-pieces, which every where but in France, have so powerfully excited the terror mixed with delight, — the sacred but mysterious sorrow allied with pleasure, — which are at once the instruments and the purposes of tragic imitation.

If a critic of this school be unprepared with an argument, he will seldom be at a loss for his dogma. It is therefore not strange that M. JOUV, a gentleman who has been for some time known in the walks of literature, as the author of an entertaining miscellany called the *Hermite de la Chaussée d'Antin*, and as a contributor to the French *New Biography*, should join in a cry so tunable to the ears of his countrymen. 'Instruct,' he remarks, 'à l'école des Corneille, des Molière, des Voltaire, et des Racine, j'indique et je ne mesure pas l'immense intervalle, qui les sépare à mes yeux des adversaires que les Anglais, les Allemands, et même les Espagnols, voudraient en vain leur opposer. Chez le seul peuple élève des Grecs, l'art de la scène,' &c. We will leave the sentence imperfect, remarking only that it is of the very essence of national vanity; and that it would be difficult to say whether it contains more of arrogance as to what it claims, or of error as to what it asserts. We might, indeed, call on these supposed descendants of Æschylus and Sophocles to produce the title-deeds and vouchers of their claim, and then leave the question to be decided by the failure of the proof: but, as nothing relative to taste or literature can be uninteresting, we shall say a few words on the subject of this proud and unfounded pretension, and endeavor, conceding to M. JOUV 'the immense interval' between the French and the English drama, to shew that, from whatever other causes that distinction has arisen, it has proceeded from no analogy either in form or character, in substance or spirit, between the Greek and the French tragedy.

We begin with the language of France, a most unmanageable organ for tragic as well as lyric poetry. To say nothing
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of the stiffness of its construction, or the want of melody in its accent and of poetic vigour in its phrase, it is in every other respect distinguishable from that of antient Greece. Poetry was an essential part of the Greek manners, and was incorporated into the Greek language: it breathed the peculiar sentiments of the nation; it was conversant with their daily usages; it consecrated the traditions of their faith; it was the language in which they adored their gods and celebrated their festivals. In a word, the Greek poetry was full of reality, — not like the French, a language of convention. French poetry, on the other hand, has lost by foreign graftings the raciness of the soil in which it first grew. The patch-work of antient mythology, with which it was so early disfigured, destroyed, as it were, that individuality which, in all probability, it would have retained if it had been suffered to grow up from the old *fabliaux*, the romances of chivalry, and the antient mysteries; and allowed, from these beginnings, to struggle, like the poetry of other countries, in its own way towards perfection. It might, indeed, have had a longer infancy: but it would have preserved a more genuine character and a stronger nationality; a closer alliance with the manners, the religion, and the history of the people. This has not been its fortune. In the sixteenth century, it fell into the hands of a class of writers who, mistaking pedantry for poetry, repudiated all national associations for the mythology and manners of antiquity; and the verse which, however uncouth, was once the delight of palaces and castles, — the verse in which princes and knights breathed their loves and their sorrows, — became the exclusive property of those who could translate Horace and Pindar, while they outraged common sense and lost sight of nature.

This imitation of the antients gave to French poetry, at first, a pedantic and unnatural character: but, by degrees, it became a mixed species of diction, in which real circumstances so modified its borrowed features, as to impart to it the composite form which it has retained to the present hour. Yet, though long habitude, and education, and national prejudice have almost identified the French with their poetical system, it has never cordially harmonized with the manners and feelings of the country; and it is only by a sort of convention, that a Frenchman can imagine that he is reading poetry. How unlike the poetry of the Greeks; who paint what they feel, describe what they see, and who are never constrained to exaggerate their impressions or to inflate their language.

Much also of the peculiarity of the drama of France may be traced to a peculiarity in its history. It is not of high an-
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tiquity, — for before the time of *Richelieu* it had scarcely a distinct form or substance. It had no infancy which gave the presage of its future vigour; — for no Marlowe, or Shirley, or Marston, prepared the way for *Corneille*, as those writers, the rude but vigorous progenitors of our drama, prepared it for Shakspeare. The French had no literary age, like that of our Elizabeth; that intermediate period, in which a language puts forth its strength and copiousness, but has not yet arrived at its elegance and refinement. The French drama was, at its birth, swaddled and compressed into that faint resemblance of the Greek models, which only shews more strongly the essential difference between the glowing original and the lifeless imitation.

It would be a waste of words to enter largely into the essential and constitutional differences of these dramatic schools. The Greek tragedy was partly lyrical, partly dramatic. In its dramatic branch, it was an inimitable and indefinite combination of the ideal and the natural; a fiction which elevated us above the "visible diurnal sphere," without dealing in unreal agencies or unsubstantial personifications.* Its personages were heroic, but framed from the common elements of our nature, and were the slaves of an over-ruling destiny, which impelled them into perpetual conflicts with the ills and adversities of life. It was this struggle, as it were, between a stern and irresistible fatality on one side, and the moral freedom of human agency on the other, that gave its "form and pressure" to the Greek tragedy; that exclusive and peculiar character, by which it is distinguished from the drama of every age or country. — The mythology of Greece was, moreover, the basis of Greek tragedy. The French, it is true, have frequently taken their subjects from the mythology of Greece: but, in their hands, the traditions of antiquity are no longer Greek in manners, in dialogue, or in sentiment. Whether the French poet draws his materials from tradition or history, the spirit both of tradition and history evaporates beneath his pen; and, instead of ancient manners or ancient sentiments, we have nothing more than the cold ceremony, the constrained politeness, and the stiff gallantry of the French metropolis. He is wholly unable to transfuse himself or his auditors into the times which he represents, for he cannot escape from the modes of social life and the forms of social institution, to which he has himself been habituated. Thus

* An exception to this remark is to be found in the *Prometheus* of *Æschylus*, where two allegorical persons are introduced.

trammelled, he cannot so much as picture to our imaginations the dignified port and god-like gesture of the heroic beings whose names he has borrowed; or convey the faintest portrait of the rude simplicity and manly ferocity of the heroic ages; or even image to his own conceptions a race who were beyond the reach of human control, and amenable only to celestial jurisdiction.

Where, then, is the boasted resemblance of the French to the Greek tragedy, if it cannot be found in the manners represented, nor in the genius and spirit of the poetry? In truth, not only is there a total failure of dramatic analogy, but a marked and emphatic diversity, lying deep in those essentially distinctive characters of the two nations, which no sophistry can force into the slightest approximation to each other. The poets of Germany and of England have not unfrequently so fully imbibed the spirit of antiquity, as to preserve on their several theatres the lineaments of the personages of antient story, without losing all their original strength and freshness: but not so the poets of France. From the hands of the French artist, every hero of antiquity comes a perfect Frenchman. This is even the case with *Racine*, although no poet was a more diligent or enamoured student of the Greek models. Let his Achilles be compared with the Achilles of Homer. The latter is

"Impiger, iracundus, inexorabilis, acer;"

but these qualities are gone in the modern copy; and Achilles is a graceful insinuating courtier, with the gallantry of a French lover under the old régime, and the stiffness of a Maréchal at the court of Louis XIV. Circumscribed within the magic circle of French usages, French sentiments, and French conventions, the French poet is completely at a loss either to imagine or to delineate any thing that lies beyond it. He has no criterion of beauty, no rules of taste, no standard of propriety, beyond the walls of Paris.

Not to mention the exclusion of love from the Greek theatre, (that universal agent of the modern drama,) nor the peculiar effect of antient music, (which, as we learn from Plato, was little short of miraculous,) the Chorus, — an instrument so exclusively Greek, of an use and destination so widely alien from the plan of the French tragedy, and so untransferrable in its properties as to render every attempt to apply it to the modern drama, English, German, French, or Italian, a source only of ridicule and discomfiture, — the Chorus, we say, is of itself sufficient to destroy "that glorious analogy of the French drama to that of Greece," which *Lacretelle* offers as

a consolation to his countrymen for its not having reached the elevation of Shakspeare. Yet, without this philosophical and lyric agent, (for the Greek chorus was a mysterious and undecidable admixture of philosophic gravity and lyrical sweetness,) what tragedy can pretend to be of Greek conformation? The experiment, indeed, was vainly made by the elegant *Racine*: but the essay proved rather that he had taste and sensibility to feel the beauties of the antient writers, than power to transfuse their spirit or to imitate their vigour. Yet the lyric passages of his *Athalie* have no slight portion of the charm of the antient Chorus: the place of action is linked with our religious associations; and the scene, the Temple of Jerusalem, imparts to the fable much of the august solemnity that was inherent in those public celebrations of religious worship in which the Greeks delighted, and which were the seasons selected for their theatrical representations. The whole of the drama, also, breathes a sort of divine horror, mixed with a religious delight: every secular and worldly emotion is hushed to peace, or warned off as from a hallowed territory, during its perusal: while the conflict of good and ill on earth, and the wakeful eye of Providence watching the struggle, assisting the weakness and encouraging the efforts of virtue, are delineated in colors which render the picture at once beautiful and impressive.

In selecting almost the only memorable instance of such an experiment in the whole range of French dramatic composition;—that experiment also never brought to its test, for the *Athalie* was never represented, and was not in fact written till this charming poet had been driven from the theatre by the literary factions which disgraced the age;—in selecting such an instance, we are in fact establishing our position: for we must not notice the miserable puerilities of *Jodelle*, who also attempted to introduce a chorus into his tragedies; those dramas having been borrowed from Seneca the tragedian, who was himself equally uninformed by the spirit and unable to comprehend the genuine meaning of a Greek Chorus.

To what, then, is the analogy reduced which is set up by our neighbours? Is it to rest on “the unities,” that word of magic potency with the French critics, and built, they tell us, on the positive decree of Aristotle? A word or two, then, as to these unities, and only a word or two, for the sophism has already been refuted over and over again.

In the first place, we protest against Aristotle's exclusive authority on a question of taste and of common sense. Let it be but shewn that, by the observance of these laws, dramatic imitation is restricted to limits incompatible with the
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liberal and expanded course of human thought; that the volitions of genius are fettered; and that, instead of that creative and elastic faculty to which we have given the name of imagination, — that faculty which is nursed by the free and large and unrestrained contemplation of the great forms of the natural and the sublime truths of the moral world, — is substituted a mechanical theory deduced from abstract reasoning, a mere craft, shaped by rule and built on precedent; — let this, we say, be shewn, and it will then be perceived how scanty must be the delight imbibed from the penurious fountains of art, compared to that which gushes out from the living and copious streams of nature. Why, therefore, should we uphold those arbitrary edicts, which require the extinction of the noblest of our intellectual pleasures? If Aristotle has so willed it, reason and taste have willed otherwise. The time allowed by the French critics will not comprize a really great action. The stupendous revolutions by which states are overturned, and the social and moral relations of mankind are reversed; those eminent changes in human affairs, which are so peculiarly fitted for theatric representation by their power to awe us or excite us to pity; — a conspiracy, for instance, first provoked, then darkly conceived, matured gradually for execution, attempted and frustrated, the chief actors tried, convicted, and punished within the space of a few hours, into which little space are crowded the original discontent, — that discontent swelling into sedition, — that sedition becoming an adult and finished plot, comprehending also the meeting of the conspirators, the parrying with and final triumph over the alarms of the timid, the restraining the zeal and enthusiasm of the rash: — how is all or one half of this to be crammed, by any human powers of condensation, into such a limited space, without the most egregious abandonment of the probability which every well constructed drama demands, and of that probability, too, which the rule in question was invented to preserve? How can this interval, when the genius and mortal instruments are in counsel, — that state of man which undergoes the nature of an insurrection, incidents of perturbation without which the dramatic representation of a conspiracy must be mutilated, and, being mutilated, must be improbable; — in a word, how can any idea be conveyed of that elemental strife of the passions, before the dreadful resolve is executed which constitutes the most solemn and impressive feature of the event: how can this be effected by a play stretched out and mangled on this dramatic bed of Procrustes?

Is not this a bold defiance of common probability, at the same time that the rule itself is urged for the sake of probability? After all, it is a verbal dispute, of which the logomachists themselves give up all that is worth the contest. All of them agree that it would be absurd to require a rigid correspondence of the time of the action to the time of the representation, and therefore without ceremony they extend it to a whole day. Twelve hours, however, are ludicrously insufficient for the austere and deliberate pace with which the great events of life usually march to their developement; while it is just as violent a breach of probability as if months or years were to intervene. If the spectator is to believe that the three or four hours, during which he is sitting at the theatre, are really twelve, and that battles may be lost or won and journeys performed between the acts, while in point of fact he witnesses nothing but the music of the orchestra or the cat-calls of the gallery, it is not much more that is exacted from his credulity if he be required to extend the imaginary interval to the full extent, which the exigencies of the poet may demand of him.

Be this as it may:—does the observance of the unities, in the sense of the French critics, assimilate the French and the Greek theatres, as M. Jouy, in common with the whole set of Parisian dramatists, would have us to suppose? Certainly not. Admitting, for the argument's sake, that the ancients paid the deference to those rules which it is pretended that they paid to them, (a most gratuitous and unfounded assumption,) the French resemblance to the Greek drama is a resemblance merely in that which is extrinsic to dramatic excellence; an outward resemblance in form and configuration, which, without a correspondence in poetry or manners or sentiment, goes but a little way towards the decision of the point. As to unity of place, it is true that the Greeks did not usually change the scene, and this for two reasons; first, the continual presence of the Chorus, which was a sort of personification of the public, and spoke the public voice and feeling, so that the scene, being for the most part laid in the public place, could not have shifted without the grossest impropriety;—and, secondly, the antient theatres were so constructed, that the scene did not in general represent a hall or an apartment, but an open space of considerable extent, with various temples and basilica. When an interior room was required, it was effected by means of a mechanical contrivance similar to the modern practice of raising a curtain, by means of which the inside of a palace or a mansion could be exhibited to the spectators. Hence, a change of scene would have been unnecessary.

necessary. Sometimes, however, it became requisite, as in the *Eumenides* of Æschylus and the *Ajax* of Sophocles; and, on such occasions, the poet availed himself of it without any scruple. Unity of place, then, was not the inexorable rule of ancient art; and, with regard to time, several eminent departures from it are to be found. A considerable time must have elapsed before the *Agamemnon* of Æschylus could have arrived at Mycenæ after the fall of Troy: but that interval is wholly comprehended within the action. In the *Trachiniae*, a journey to and from Thessaly is made several times successively. In the *Supplices*, Euripides dispatches a Grecian army from Athens to Thebes; whence, having given and sustained a battle, it returns victorious, — and this too during the recitation of the Chorus. The truth is that the circumscribed space of duration in the Greek tragedies resulted from the Chorus.

As we hinted before, we might leave Aristotle altogether out of the question: but, as these absurdities have been traditionally fathered on the luckless Stagyræite, it would have been due to a great name in philosophy, and in letters, to say a word or two by way of redeeming him from the imputation. The task, however, has been taken out of our hands by a German critic (W. Schlegel), whose writings have done more to illustrate and adorn dramatic literature, than the whole herd of French writers and English commentators taken together. The fact is that the dictum in his *Poetics*, which has so long served for the corner-stone of the hypothesis, is a spurious gloss. Not a word in that passage has Aristotle said of the unity of place; and to that of time he makes only a slight and passing allusion, not enjoining its observance as a dramatic duty, but simply noticing it as one of the features which usually distinguished tragic from epic imitation.

How strange, then, is it to contend for the analogy of the Greek and the French theatres, when their essential and radical dissonance is almost an identical proposition? The two nations are scarcely more disjoined by time and geographical distance from each other, than by the eternal contrast existing between them. The chief divorcement between the two dramas is constituted, as we have said before, by the irreconcilable genius of the two languages;

“ *Quid enim contendat hirundo
Cycnis?* ”

but it is not the French language only, its measured and balanced rhythm, and the heavy and languid movement of its verse, that are wholly unable to keep pace with the rapid and unequal

unequal current with which real feeling rushes from the lips and the heart ; — it is the genius of that national character which, since the age of *Richelieu*, has had so strong an influence on their literature, — it is this which is almost equally fatal to the genuine expression of the passions that is so essential to dramatic composition. In France, every thing seems to be said or written with a calm calculation, as it were, of its effect on others. Thought itself is a matter of usage and convention. Accordingly, the persons of tragedy are scarcely suffered to speak as from themselves : they are the echoes of the poet ; and they express their griefs apparently with the same equality of mind with which he composed their declamations in his closet, and strung together epigrams and antitheses for the utterance of their passions. We have not in French tragedy the human being who speaks his sorrow in the language of sorrow, but a person whose appearance is destructive to dramatic effect altogether ; viz. the author himself, who thinks of nothing but the applause which he wishes to levy, and therefore shews the audience how skilfully he can decompose and analyze the emotions of his hero or heroine in studied and rhetorical sentences, which are equally remote from the sacred inspiration of the poet and from the untutored dialect of nature.

We are not so wanting in charity or in equity as to deny great powers to the chief French tragic poets : but those powers were exercised for the most part within the limited province of art. The character of their language, but above all the artificial tone of their sentiments, forbade them to wander in the liberal and unrestrained steps of other poets through the wide domains of nature. Whatever exterior resemblance their drama may bear to that of the ancients, it is destitute of every particle of that living and immortal spirit, at which they pretend that their lamp has been kindled ; — it is unembellished with one ray of that genius which was nursed amid the greatness and irregularity of the natural world, and was fed by those sublime truths with which the mind of man, unless impeded and restrained by artificial precepts, necessarily strives to hold a communion.

If there be instances which qualify the generality of this censure, we should not be able to find any of them in *Corneille*, and occasionally only in *Racine* : but it is perhaps *Voltaire* ; who, though a staunch adherent to the unities, has emancipated himself with most success from the pedantic constraints of the French tragedy. In his early essays, indeed, he seems to have religiously followed the prescribed track, and his *Œdipus* and *Mariamne* are exquisite paintings in the style
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of *Racine* : but *Voltaire* was naturally impatient of restraint ; and he gave the reins to his imagination when he produced the *Zaire*, a dramatic work blemished with faults which are more than redeemed by its beauties. In this play, he has left the traces of a truly poetic talent. It does not, indeed, exhibit the finished versification and mellifluous softness of the verse of *Racine*, nor his scrupulous exactness of plot, nor his endless gradations of sentiment ; — nor does it display the loftier imagination and sterner grandeur of *Corneille*. It has something, however, that surpasses these : a warm and rapid utterance of feeling, a tone of passion which is true to nature, a winning and resistless beauty of thought and expression. Every scene bears the impress of an ardent imagination, and the mind which produced the *Zaire* must have felt the full tide of passion and of poesy rushing on it. The *Merope* is also a noble tragedy, and it was succeeded by one or two others of equal merit. Yet *Voltaire* was not destined to sustain an equable career in dramatic composition ; for he became a politician and a sceptic, and endeavored to make the drama instrumental to the influence which he had acquired over the period in which he lived. All systems of opinion restrain the fancy, and give to poetry an aid of affectation and stiffness. Hence, in the greater part of his dramas, the declamatory and artificial tone which deadens the most interesting situations, destroys the truth and identity of the characters, and effaces their peculiar and distinctive colorings. In the pieces to which we allude, *Voltaire* is as wholesale a dealer in general maxims as *Corneille*.

The slight exceptions, however, which a few of the great master-pieces offer to our opinions concerning the French drama, do not, we think, weaken the general effect of the observations into which we have judged it our duty to enter ; not with the hope of doing justice to so complex a subject, but to record our protest against the claim of affinity to the Greek models which the author of *Sylla* has revived on behalf of the French theatre. We shall now proceed to that tragedy itself : but we must say a few words first as to the new class of dramatic productions to which it belongs. This class is new in French literature, and is one of the effects of the general intellectual fermentation produced by the Revolution. That a signal vicissitude in human affairs, which ended not only in simple modifications, but complete renovations, of religion and government and jurisprudence, and forced the current of human thought into new channels, — that such an event should have produced only a slight effect on the literature of France, would have been singular even among the strangest of moral

moral prodigies. Still, paradoxical as it may seem, that effect was far from being considerable. For a while, the revolutionary terrors extinguished the universal mind of the country. "*Ingenia studiaque opprimeris facilius quam revocareris.*" The military genius of *Bonaparte*, liberal as he was to the abstract and exact sciences, was inauspicious to the elegant studies; and, though the restoration of the old dynasty gave them peace and encouragement, they were taken up from the point at which they had arrived when the storms of the Revolution drove them into exile, or frightened them into silence. Accordingly, the dramatic writers of the present day have not advanced beyond the old limits of the art. They content themselves with trudging on, but with unequal step, in the path of *Corneille* and *Racine*, of *Voltaire* and *Crébillon*; with this accessory circumstance, that, by the new institutions of France, the influence of the people in political measures having been somewhat parsimoniously allowed to them, the theatre has for several years been the arena of conflicting political sentiments. In consequence, plays are written to gratify parties; and, though the Parisians often get but sorry compositions for their money, the *sauce piquante* of the politics reconciles them to their bargain. *Sylla* and *Regulus* are political tragedies, evidently written on this principle; each being addressed, though with the requisite caution to evade the disapprobation of the censorship, to the political passions of the multitude.

The author of *Sylla* disclaims the parallel between 'the conqueror of Mithridates and the hero of Austerlitz,' in the sense of the critics and auditors of Paris, but in such a way as to make his own design of tracing it the more manifest. To this end, he has adopted the sportive paradox of *Montesquieu* with regard to the character of the Roman dictator; viz. that the tyrannical cruelties of *Sylla* were devised for the mere purpose of disciplining the Roman people into a greater fitness for liberty. It is not a little remarkable that M. Jour has taken what was evidently a *jeu d'esprit* of *Montesquieu*, viz. the dialogue of *Sylla* and *Eucrates*, for his calm philosophical view of the character of the former. 'That terrible character,' he says, 'of which none of the historians could sound the depths, has been developed by one ray of the genius of *Montesquieu*.' He might have discovered that, in the graver and more philosophical work of that writer, the splendid act of *Sylla's* abdication is stripped of no small share of its magnanimity, and the other features of his life are traced in very different colors. We request the reader to peruse the passage in the eighth chapter of the President's
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disquisition on the *Grandeur et Decadence des Romains*, and then decide whether M. Joux, by adopting the sketch of an ancient character which is professedly a piece of imagination, rather than the solemn portrait of it which occurs in one of the most elaborate compositions of modern times, and which was faithfully copied from Appian and Plutarch, has not at least departed from that severe truth which ought to be the basis of historical tragedy.

That the parallel between *Bonaparte* and *Sylla* runs upon all fours we are not disposed to contend, for such a parallel would have been impossible. It was sufficient, however, for a modern political play, that it should abound in such strokes of resemblance as might give fair occasions for the explosion of the public feeling of Paris; and, although the contrasts between the two characters far exceed the similitudes, the purpose of M. Joux was fully answered. The celebrated tragic actor, *Talma*, whose features are said to resemble those of Napoleon, by his gesture and voice supplied to a great degree the defect of the parallel. It is therefore hardly possible to assent to the strenuous disavowal of the author, who has in his preface endeavored to enlighten the audience as to his own design.

The hypothesis that the dreadful and sanguinary acts of the worst monsters, whom the mysterious ordinances of Providence have ever permitted to plague mankind, were merely a salutary discipline to rectify the disorders of the state, has been made the foundation of this tragedy, and is thus developed from the mouth of *Sylla* himself in a somewhat long-winded speech, which he addresses to the senate; and in which, after the manner of French tragedies, he tells that assembly a great portion of matter of fact with which it must have been before well acquainted:

‘ Vous savez à quel prix j’ai conquis un pouvoir
Dont l’état expirant m’imposait le devoir.
Qu’importe que *Sylla* s’illustrant dans la guerre,
Portât le nom Romain aux bornes de la terre;
Que par moi *Mithridate* à fuir fût condamné;
Qu’en triomphe à mon char *Jugurtha* fût mené;
Que pour moi la fortune en miracles féconde
Affermît votre gloire et le repos du monde,
Si, recueillant le fruit de mes nobles exploits,
Marius au sénat osait dicter ses lois,
Et, brisant les liens d’un peuple frénétique,
A ses lâches fureurs livrait la république?
Triomphante au dehors, Rome, esclave au dedans,
Expirait sous les corps de ses propres enfants.

Qui

Qui pouvait l'arracher à son destin funeste ?

*Sylla. L'heureux Sylla paraît devant Preneste ;
Tout fuit, ou meurt ; tout cède à mes premiers efforts ;*

Le fils de Marius le rejoint chez les morts.

Abjurant les conseils d'une fausse clémence,

Dans Rome entre avec moi la terreur, la vengeance ;

Le salut de l'état veut des proscriptions ;

Et dans les flots de sang j'éteins les factions.

Du peuple et du sénat je me proclame maître ;

L'un apprend à me craindre, et l'autre à me connaître.

De cette liberté que j'opprime aujourd'hui,

Mon pouvoir, que l'on hait, est le dernier appui.

Loin de Rome rugit le démon des batailles :

Le calme de la paix règne dans vos murailles.

Cependant on murmure, et quelques voix encor

A la plainte rebelle osent donner l'essor ;

Et du sein de la tombe évoquant la tempête

Le spectre d'Arpinum a soulevé sa tête.

De coupables soupirs, jusqu'à moi parvenus,

Annoncent des complots ; ils seront prévenus.

Le salut de l'état impose à ma justice

Le devoir rigoureux d'un dernier sacrifice.

Examinez les noms sur cette liste inscrits ;

Rome demande encor ce reste de pros crits ;

C'est le dernier éclat d'un salutaire orage ;

A la publique paix donnons encor ce gage.

Je veux savoir de vous, avant que de signer,

S'il est quelque Romain que l'on puisse épargner.

Voyez ; mais songez bien qu'en cette circonstance

Chacun de vous répond de sa propre indulgence.

(Il donne la liste à Metellus.)

Claudius, husband of Valeria, is devoted to death at the suggestion of Catiline ; and the cold-blooded monster, to whom M. Jouy gives credit for the purest patriotism in the proscriptions which deluged the streets of Rome with blood, avows the only reason for this murder to be the victim's relationship to the tribune Sulpitius.

' Sylla. (écrivait le nom de Claudius sur la liste.)

Son aïeul est son crime, et c'est Sulpicius,

Que ma justice atteint en frappant Claudius.'

He forgets himself immediately afterward, and exclaims :

' Nul intérêt privé n'excite ma rigueur ;

although Claudius had committed, according to Sylla's own avowal, no crime but that of being, as Catiline suggested,

' Fils de Sulpicius, de ce tribun infâme,

Qui fit vendre tes biens, qui proscrivit ta femme.'

Private

Private vengeance is the torch applied by Catiline, who is enamoured of Valeria, to the savage malignity of the dictator; and Sylla himself exclaims that his blow is aimed at Sulpitius in the destruction of Claudius. Yet this butcher of his fellow-creatures hugs himself on the patriotic postponement of all private feelings to a large and expanded sense of the public good. Such are the contradictions entailed on M. Jouy by the injudicious choice of his subject, and by the unsuccessful attempt to render a moral paradox in the person of Sylla, though in defiance of historic testimony and the received sense of mankind, a source of dramatic interest. In the meanwhile, having issued the order for the assassination of Claudius, Sylla is unwilling to revoke it: but, moved by the pleadings of Roscius, who plays the part of a male confidant after the old usage of the French drama, and is accordingly the mere peg on which the principal personage hangs his speeches, he intimates his hope that the innocent victim of his tyranny will escape, and Roscius hastens in the zeal of friendship to bear that intimation to him.

Faustus, the son of Sylla, is the bosom-friend of Claudius, and the latter enters the palace of the dictator to apprise Faustus that a plot was on foot against Sylla, in whose destruction he fears his son will be involved. The generous youth reminds him of his own peril if he is found there, but conceals him in the palace, as Claudius has no other asylum; and a long dialogue ensues, in which Faustus, in behalf of his friend, deprecates his father's vengeance, and Sylla again hints his wishes that Claudius should escape.

Some power is displayed in the following scene, in which Valeria expostulates with the tyrant.

Valérie. (*échevelée, et se débattant au milieu des lecteurs.*)
Laissez-moi! — De ces lieux qui pourrait m'arracher?
Je veux voir le tyran.

Sylla. (*froidement.*) Elle peut approcher.

Valérie. Assouvis le besoin de ton âme odieuse;
Contemple-moi, cruel! je suis bien malheureuse.

Sylla. Qu'on s'éloigne, lecteurs! Laissez-nous, Roscius.

Valérie. Je connais trop Sylla, j'aime trop Claudius
Pour implorer ici le juge inexorable

Dont l'arrêt nous poursuit dans ce jour exécration.

Ta clémence aisément peut contenter mes vœux;

Apprends-moi mon malheur, c'est tout ce que je veux,

Je ne demande pas quelle fut notre offense:

Le courage, la peur, les discours, le silence,

Tout est crime à tes yeux, et je ne prétends pas

Excuser mon époux, et désarmer ton bras.

Quand tu le proscrivais tu lui faisais justice;

~~Mais~~ conspirions ensemble, et je suis sa complice;

*Je partage ou plutôt j'excite dans son cœur
La haine généreuse et la profonde horreur
Qu'inspire à mon époux ta longue tyrannie ;
Tous deux nous implorions les dieux de la patrie,
Et, tous deux loin de toi, dans notre obscurité,
Nos vœux étaient pour Rome et pour la liberté :
Unis dans nos regrets et dans nos espérances,
Pourquoi nous séparer au jour de tes vengeances ?
Oui, Sylla, Claudius est un garant pour toi :
Tremble si je n'ai plus à craindre que pour moi.*

*' Sylla. Je ne redoute point ta fureur vengeresse ;
De ton sexe en tout temps j'épargnai la faiblesse :
Mais ton époux conspire, et quand le dictateur
Sur l'ennemi des lois exerce leur rigueur,
Plus indulgent, Sylla pardonne à Valérie.*

*' Valérie. Va, je crains ton pardon, et non pas ta furie,
Et des maux que sur nous verse ta cruauté
Ton affreuse clémence est le plus redouté.
Épargne-moi du moins cet horrible supplice.
Auprès de mon époux souffre que je périsse.
Tu seras, quelque mort qu'il nous faille souffrir,
Moins prompt à l'ordonner que nous à le subir.
Eh ! quoi ! Faustus, aussi tu gardes le silence ;
Tu détournes les yeux ! crains-tu que ma présence,
Dans le fond de ton cœur accusant la pitié,
Ne réclame en ce jour les droits de l'amitié ?
Rassure-toi ; je sais ce que tu peux entendre,
Et du fils de Sylla ce que je dois attendre.*

*' Faustus. Valérie, en ces lieux, où tu portes tes pas,
Contiens ton désespoir, et ne m'accusa pas.*

' Valérie. Quand mon époux périt !

' Faustus.

Peut-être il vit encore

' Valérie. Où donc est Claudius ? ah ! parle !

' Faustus.

Je l'ignore.

*' Valérie. Tu l'ignores ? Non, non ! De ton front indiscret
La pâleur me révèle un horrible secret ;*

Je t'entends, et j'abjure une lâche espérance.

Les Marius ont eu leur moment de clémence :

Sylla, l'affreux Sylla ne pardonne jamais.

Eh bien ! frappe sa veuve au sein de ton palais ;

Si j'en passe le seuil, ma douleur frénétique

Court armer contre toi la vengeance publique.

Je n'invoquerai pas ces faibles défenseurs,

Que vient de disperser l'aspect de tes lecteurs.

Pour punir un tyran, et pour briser nos chaînes,

Sil n'est plus de Romains il reste des Romaines :

Ces mères dont ta rage assassina les fils,

Les épouses, les sœurs, les veuves des proscrits,

M'attendent ; et nos bras, à défaut du tonnerre,

Du bourreau des Romains vont déliorer la terre.

' Faustus. Oh ciel ! où courez-vous ?

' Valérie.

• Valérie.

Me venger, ou périr.

• Faustus. *Gardes ! — retenez-la. —*

• Sylla.

Qu'on la laisse sortir.

Valeria excites and plans the conspiracy; and it is determined that Claudius, who had already won over the priest of the temple of Fortune (where the dictator was about to sacrifice in person to the gods) to admit him secretly into the sanctuary, should at a given signal rush on the tyrant and stab him: — but the plot is betrayed by the treachery of the priest, who has been seduced by the gold of Catiline. Roscius is denounced to Sylla as the person by whom Claudius is harboured; but Faustus, in a private conference with his father, anxious to avert the peril that impended over Roscius, confesses that Claudius was concealed by himself within the walls of the palace. Sylla is of course indignant, and recollects the heroic example of the elder Brutus, who sacrificed his son: but such a sacrifice he deems too costly for the degenerate Romans of his day.

• *Les Romains sont trop vils pour leur donner mon sang.*

The resolve of abdication then “peers darkly” on his mind.

The fifth act opens with the bustle of public preparations, apparently for the execution of Faustus and Claudius. A shout is heard: Sylla advances slowly in the midst of the crowd: Valeria makes an impotent attempt to assassinate the dictator; and the latter addresses the people in a speech from the rostrum, reminding them of his victories in Pontus, Epirus, and Greece, as well as his triumphs over Jugurtha and Mithridates. Then explaining to them the principles on which he usurped, and the purposes for which he exercised, the supreme power of the state, he concludes a tedious harangue by throwing off his purple robe, and says;

• *Je dépose la pourpre — Éloignez-vous, licteurs.*

(*Les licteurs et les soldats, qui entouraient la tribune, déposent leurs armes et leurs faisceaux, et vont se confondre parmi le peuple.*)

Me voilà désarmé ! — Je vous livre ma vie :

Aux complots, aux poignards, j'oppose mon génie,

La vertu de Brutus, l'âme de Scipion,

Chéronée, Orchomène, et l'effroi de mon nom.

Le sénat a pour lui ma fortune et ma gloire :

Que Sylla soit toujours présent à sa mémoire.

Vainqueur de Marius, je l'avais surpassé,

Et j'ai conquis le rang où je me suis placé.

Romains, je romps les nœuds de votre obéissance.

(*Il descend de la tribune.*)

These extracts will convey some idea of the structure and execution of M. JOUV's tragedy. It is not open to a sweeping and general condemnation, for some of its declamations occasionally exhibit strength and elevation: but the warmth of the diction is a meagre substitute for warmth of feeling and of sentiment; and a striking situation or two can form only a poor exchange for character skilfully portrayed, or a plot simply yet powerfully developed. In these requisites, the play is manifestly deficient, and reminds us of the vague and pompous manner of *Dubelloy*, rather than the dignified and noble expression of *Corneille*.

After all, it is the unnatural attempt on the moral taste of mankind, by endeavoring to excite a sentiment akin to moral approbation in behalf of *Sylla*, that constitutes the radical sin of this tragedy, and that renders it feeble and languid in respect of impression, false and exaggerated in respect of sentiment. Thus, indeed, must it ever fare with all experiments to displace the instinctive feelings which stir the holy hatred of cruelty and oppression within us, to make way for a cold sophism, a harsh and unnatural problem, from which we shrink with horror and affright. That this drama has attained a temporary popularity may be due to the admirable acting of *Tatma*, and to the passages which vibrated in unison with party feelings: but it will not be allowed by posterity to rank with *Cinna* or *Britannicus*, or any of those great models of former days, which still retain their power on the stage and in the closet.

The tragedy of *Regulus* has suffered considerable mutilations under the hands of the censorship. It is a play in three acts by the son of M. Arnault, who held a high official situation under *Bonaparte*. He is, however, better known as the author of two or three successful tragedies, among which are *Marius at Minturnum*, *Lucretia*, and *Cincinnatus*.* His son has followed in the present composition rather the plan of *Metastasio* than that of *Pradon* and *Dorat*, each of whom composed a drama on the same subject. — There is a total want of dramatic movement in the first act, till the close of it, when *Regulus* arrives. Having embraced *Attilia*, his daughter, he utters the following declamation:

— ' Consul, amis, enfans, patrie,
Qu'il m'est doux de revoir cette terre chérie,
Ces murs, ce Capitole habité par nos dieux,
Et ces champs paternels, qu' illustraient nos aïeux,

* We suppose him to be also the coadjutor of M. Jouy in the *New Biography*.

*Venez tous — dans mes bras venez que je vous presse,
O ma fille, ô mon fils, objets de ma tendresse !
J'oublie, en vous voyant, ma longue adversité.
Voilà donc ces remparts, cette noble cité,
Où l'homme libre et fier n'a, sous un ciel propice,
Pour maîtres que les dieux, pour frein que la justice.
Salut, digne séjour des plus rares vertus,
Salut, berceau d'Horace et tombe de Brutus,
Autel où je juraïs, plein d'espoir et de zèle,
Ou de vaincre pour Rome, ou de périr pour elle.
Vains sermens — je respire, et suis vaincu.*

In the second act, the senate propounds to Amilcar, the Carthaginian ambassador, the terms on which they will consent to a peace with Carthage, among which is the liberation of Regulus. Amilcar agrees to them, but Regulus himself opposes the proposition, in a speech of fifty-six lines; which, after a slight interruption, is followed by another of thirty-seven, and again continued in one of forty-four. He succeeds, the senate yields to his reasonings, and peace is rejected: but Licinius, the lover of Attilia, endeavors, as tribune of the people, to oppose the decree of the senate, and the sworn resolution of Regulus to return to Carthage. We extract the following scene as the most favorable specimen of M. ARNAULT's powers as a dramatic writer.

Attilie, Régulus, Licinius.

Régulus. *Vous ici, vous, ma fille, avec Licinius,
Ses funestes complots vous sont-ils inconnus ?*

Licinius. *Romain, j'ai satisfait aux vœux de Rome entière.*

Attilie. *Pourrez-vous plus long-temps repousser sa prière ?
Serez vous insensible au commun desespoir ?
Et sur vous la patrie est-elle sans pouvoir ?*

Licinius. *A ses lois Régulus est-il encor rebelle ?*

Régulus. *Je meurs pour la sauver, c'est mourir digne d'elle.
Mais toi, Licinius, parjure à l'amitié,
Disciple de ma gloire, as-tu donc oublié
Ces jours où j'inspirais, dans les champs du carnage,
Ma vieille expérience à ton jeune courage ?
Aimant un vrai soldat dans un vrai citoyen,
Ne te souvient-il plus que par un doux lien
Ma tendresse voulait vous unir l'un à l'autre ?
Le hasard a trahi mon espoir et le vôtre ;
Mais des bords du tombeau je puis enfin bénir
Les nœuds qui pour jamais doivent vous réunir.
Si tu l'aimes, viens, jure au dieu de la victoire
De servir aujourd'hui la patrie et ma gloire,
D'éclaircir les Romains par toi seul égarés,
De rétablir la paix dans ces remparts sacrés.
Jure, dis-je ; à l'instant je te donne ma fille ;
Je te lègue mon nom, mon honneur, ma famille ;*

*Et les dieux ne m'auront opprimé qu'à demi
Si dans un vrai Romain je retrouve un ami.*

Attilie. Pourrions-nous consentir à cet hymen barbare ?

*Non. De ces murs s'il faut que ce jour vous sépare,
Je vous suivrai partout. Vos maux, votre danger,
Pour dernière faveur je veux les partager.*

Ne me repoussez pas. Sur la rive étrangère,

Mes soins adouciront les peines de mon père. —

Régulus. Modère ta douleur ; arme-toi de constance.

Ka, de quelques instans si mon trépas s'avance,

Faut-il tant s'affliger ? Que font à Régulus

Ou quelques jours de moins ou quelques jours de plus ?

A l'aspect du laurier que ma tête va ceindre,

De la rigueur des Dieux ai-je droit de me plaindre ?

A mourir destiné, sans gémir de mon sort,

Au salut de l'état je consacre ma mort ;

Et croyez, mes enfans, qu'on est digne d'envie

Quand par un beau trépas l'on couronne sa vie ;

Quand, après s'être laissé un durable regret,

On se survit encor dans le bien qu'on a fait.

A mutiny among the populace is excited, and Regulus protects the Carthaginian ambassador from its fury. Finding that his son Publius had joined the party who opposed his return to Carthage, he gives him a lecture on the duties of a citizen and son, perseveres and triumphs in his virtuous resolve, and returns to Carthage.

— *Rien ne m'arrête plus.*

Nous nous retrouverons bientôt sur l'autre plage.

Soldats, peuple, adieu donc — à Carthage ! à Carthage !

On a drama so narrow in its basis, and so restricted in its plan, it would be uncandid to pronounce severely. That, however, which we in vain seek in this tragedy is dramatic poetry. M. ARNAULT uniformly keeps within the precincts of a tame and frigid mediocrity ; and to compensate for the absence of the lively and affecting colorings of eloquence, we have not even the minor graces of the French theatre. — a progressive and rapidly increasing interest so managed as to fall on one point, and on one personage, — a clear, uniform, but gradual action, — a skilful distribution of several parts conspiring to one result. When the curtain draws up, we know all that is to happen ; and, after the arrival of Regulus, and his determination to return, we have nothing farther to learn. The springs of terror and pity are at once exhausted ; and nothing more is reserved for us but the penance of long speeches, and the reciprocation of balanced and antithetic sentences, from which nature and passion are alike banished.

Such is the existing school of the French drama !

ART.

ART. XI. *Observations Critiques sur le Roman, &c. ; i. e. Critical Observations on the Romance of Gil Blas de Santillane.* By J. A. LLORENTÉ, Author of the *Critical History of the Inquisition*, and other Works. 8vo. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co.

THE singular merits of Dr. JUAN LLORENTÉ, and his hard fate, are not unknown to our readers; who were made acquainted with his *History of the Inquisition* in the Appendix to our ninety-first and ninety-second volumes, and of whom we spoke also in vol. c. p. 428., as well as at other times. He was born at Rincon del Soto, near Calahorra in Aragon, in the year 1756; and being descended from a noble but not opulent family, he was early destined to the church, for which object his education was superintended by a maternal uncle who was a beneficed priest. At the early age of fourteen, he received the tonsure from the Bishop of Calahorra, and then proceeded to Tarragona; where he attended lectures on logic, philosophy, and theology. During his stay in this college, he performed the female character of Abigail in a sacred drama, which the students publicly exhibited. In 1773, he was removed to Saragossa, where he attended a course of civil law: but he is recorded to have been very fond of the drama, and even to have composed a comedy intitled "*The Miseries of Matrimony*." Both in Spain and Italy, ecclesiastics frequent the theatre without scandal. In 1776, he took the degree of bachelor in laws, was elected into the chapter of Calahorra, and accepted priest's orders in 1779. He was next created a doctor of divinity.

Liberal principles had, however, taken great hold of his mind; and he scorned to defend the false decretals, and ultra-montane principles, still supported by the bigoted clergy. In 1781, he was admitted advocate in the Supreme Council of Castille, after a strict examination of his qualifications. At Madrid he also became a member of the Royal Academy, and wrote a melo-drama intitled "*The Gallician Recruiter*," and a tragedy called "*Euric, King of the Goths*."

The ecclesiastical office of promoter fiscal general of the bishopric of Calahorra having become vacant in 1782, it was conferred on him by his diocesan, with the farther title of Vicar-General. In this capacity he addressed, in 1783, a representation to King Charles III., to obtain some mitigation of the taxes payable by his province: an application in which he was not merely successful, but in consequence of which the king also granted him a large pecuniary supply to distribute among the poor inhabitants.

'It was in the year 1784,' says M. LLORENTÉ himself, in the biographical notice which we are abridging, 'that I renounced the ultramontane principles in point of discipline, the scholastic doctrines in theology, and the peripatetic maxims in philosophy and physics, which I had previously imbibed: yet, soon afterward, namely, in 1785, the Inquisition of Spain made an ill-advised choice of me for its Commissary. I had to prove that my ancestors, to the third generation, had incurred no punishment from the Holy Office, and that they were not descendants of Jews, Moors, or heretics; and with this hereditary test the tribunal was satisfied.'

M. LLORENTÉ acquired some celebrity as a preacher, and owed to it, in 1788, the appointment of *Consultor de Cámara* to the Duchess of Sotomayor: which led to his being included with various grandes of Spain in the list of her testamentary executors, and to his being named preceptor to the young Duke of Sotomayor, one of the richest lords in Spain.

In 1789, the Grand Inquisitor-General, Don *Augustin Rubin de Cavallos*, Bishop of Jaen, appointed the author to be Secretary-General to the Inquisition of the Court; a post which he occupied until 1791, and which placed at his disposal the archives of the Holy Office, the contents of which he was one day to publish. In that year, he was twice introduced to King Charles IV. and his queen, and obtained a proof of their benevolence by being nominated to a canonry in the church of Calahorra: which he preferred to a more important place offered him by D. A. Rubin, viz. that of Inquisitor-General of Carthagea in South America. The Count of *Florida Blanca*, then at the head of the Spanish ministry, was an enlightened statesman, a friend to the progress of knowledge and civilization, and sincerely disposed to moderate the excesses of power. He instituted, at Madrid, an Academy of History, of which M. LLORENTÉ became a member; and where he read a dissertation on the relative merits of the attempts made for the restoration of learning by *Cassiodorus* in Italy, by Saint *Isidore* in Spain, and by *Charlemagne* under the guidance of *Alcuin* in France; preferring, with patriotic pride, the Spaniard. This memoir, though not published, was analyzed in print, and gave occasion to the appointment of its author to the Censorship; an important office, which he discharged with discernment and liberality.

Alarms began to spread in 1791 about the tendency of the French Revolution; and insinuations were circulated through the Spanish court, as if M. LLORENTÉ was too indulgent a censor; which induced him to make a temporary retreat to Calahorra, leaving in hands less suspected the practical cares

of

of the censorship. During his stay there, he received with generous hospitality many emigrant French priests; and, as he was well versed in the French language, he was employed by the government to manage the official intercourse with them, and to distribute them conveniently in such monasteries as could best offer an asylum. To M. Faisneau especially, who was honorably surnamed the father of the French ecclesiastics, he lent his house and establishment gratuitously for five years.

In 1799, M. LLORENTÉ drew up a history of the emigration of the French clergy into Spain: but the manuscript, having been much circulated for purposes of precaution and correction, was somewhere intercepted, and was eventually lost both to the press and to the author. When the Prince of the Peace acquired ascendancy, M. Jovellanos, M. Cabarrus, and M. LLORENTÉ were ordered to concert a plan for giving publicity to the latent proceedings of the Holy Office; but, on the dismissal of Jovellanos, these courageous reforms were suspended. The friends of the Inquisition now took alarm, and the Censor was deprived of his office, and confined in a convent: in which comparatively degraded state he remained until 1805, when he was recalled to Madrid, and made a canon of Toledo, and a knight of the order of Charles III.

When the French invaded Spain in 1808, the author, Cabarrus, and other of his earlier connections, attached themselves to Joseph Bonaparte; who in 1809 abolished the Inquisition, and employed M. LLORENTÉ to publish those historical memoirs which acquired for him the designation of the Suetonius of the Inquisition. On the fall of Joseph Bonaparte, the author in 1814 took refuge in France: while the government which now arose in Spain confiscated his property, gave away his preferments, and even refused to him his private library of about 8000 volumes. He came to London in 1814: but, not liking the climate, or perhaps his official reception, he returned to France, and there prepared his enlarged edition of the Annals of the Holy Office, a work for which Europe and the world will long be grateful. He also published *Political Portraits of the Popes**: but, under the Bourbons, these titles to celebrity became motives for proscription, and he was ordered to quit Paris in December, 1822. His advanced age, and the fatigues of a hasty journey in snowy weather, brought on a fatal disease, which carried him off at Madrid in February, 1823.

The work that we have now to examine was the last, on which the author was engaged, and has for its object to vindicate

* See the next ensuing article.

eate the Spanish originality of the component parts of the celebrated history of *Gil Blas*. Count *François de Neufchateau* published in 1819 a memoir which he had read at the French Academy, intituled *An Examination of the Question whether Le Sage be the Author of Gil Blas, or whether he took it from the Spanish*; and the Count's reading in Spanish authors not being so extensive as that of M. LLORENTÉ, he decided in favor of the originality of *Le Sage*; admitting, however, that several episodes and incidents were borrowed from books that he had read in Spain. The present author, however, whose profound conversancy with the literature of his native country is above all praise, has here undertaken a minute dissection of the justly admired novel of *Le Sage*; and he has shewn that, from a Spanish romance written by Don *Antonio Solis*, the historian of Mexico, intituled *The Bachelor of Salamanca*, the main thread of the French *Gil Blas* was derived: as well as that the most admired episodes are translations of other romances originally Spanish. In short, he proves that only the merit of skilful compilation and elegant version belongs to the French author.

This dissertation is divided into fourteen convenient sections, in the first of which the writer gives the history of the principal manuscript which fell into the hands of *Le Sage*, called *Historia de las Aventuras del Bachiller de Salamanca Don Kerubin de la Ronda*. It was completed in the year 1655, and abounded with personal allusions to eminent individuals connected with the Spanish court in the reigns of Philip III. and Philip IV., and during the administrations of the Duke of *Lerma*, the Duke of *Uceda*, and Count *Olivares*.—*Solis*, when he composed this book, was a discontented man, and intended to print it with a foreign date: but, having afterward been employed under Philip IV., he became obliged to some of those whose connections he had satirized, and determined neither to avow his work nor to publish it. The Marquis *Hugues de Lyonne*, however, who was sent by the French court to negotiate the treaty of the Pyrenees, had a taste for novel-reading, and purchased this manuscript without learning the name of the author. His library descended to his son, the Abbé *Jules de Lyonne*, who was born at Madrid, and who cultivated Spanish literature with singular zeal. This ecclesiastic became afterward much attached to *Le Sage*, received him almost habitually as a guest, taught him Spanish, settled on him an annuity, and bequeathed to him in 1721 all the Spanish manuscripts in his library, among which was *Solis's* *Adventures of the Bachelor of Salamanca*.

M. LLORENTÉ next proceeds to trace the use which *Le Sage* now made of his friend's legacy. He printed in 1700 translations

lations of three Spanish plays, the "*Point of Honor*" and the "*Traitor punished*" from *Rojas*, and "*Don Lope de Mendoza*" from *Vega*: but he did not confine himself to literal translation, for he omitted what was superfluous, and enlivened what was flat. In 1705, he translated in the same manner *Avellaneda's* Supplement to *Don Quixote*; and in 1707, *Calderone's* *Don Cesar Ursino*. He wrote also a French comedy, *Crispin, Rival de son Maître*, the plot of which is derived from the history of Don Raphael, now a part of *Gil Blas*; and he translated with little variation the *Diable Boiteux* from the Spanish of *Guevara*. The success of this last work especially encouraged *Le Sage* to explore the mine of Spanish romance still farther; and in 1715 he published two volumes of *Gil Blas de Santillane*, without announcing that he should increase the number. — M. LLORENTÉ shews that, in composing this work, *Le Sage* uses throughout as a basis the inedited novel of *Solis*, but that he has inserted in the first book the history of Donna Mencia de Mosquera from a distinct Spanish source; in the second book, the history of the barber Diego de la Fuente, from *Espinel's* Life of *Marcos d'Obrigon*; in the third book, two tales separately extant; in the fourth book, the history of *Donna Aurora de Guzman*, from the plot of a Spanish comedy; in the fifth book, the history of Don Raphael and of his mother Lucinda from two Spanish novels; and in the sixth book the robbery of Samuel Simon from the narrative of an *auto-da-fé*.

Gil Blas was so well received not only in France but in Europe generally, and was so eagerly translated into various languages, that *Le Sage* determined on a continuation; and he now had recourse to the unused portions of the work of *Solis*, which also he interpolated with adventures derived from other sources: — thus adding two more volumes to his first work, which were completed in 1735. — The analysis before us is most convincing, elaborate, and complete, and may serve to teach the future synthesis of such another work of art; which has nevertheless great merit both for the happy style of narration, and for the apt selection of various incidents. Some curious anachronisms are pointed out, arising from the use of stories, which were written at different times, as parts of one contemporary scheme of event. Some mistakes also in geography, and in the names of real persons, are indicated; such as evince that the author had frequently relied on manuscripts which he could not distinctly read, and which mentioned places and persons wholly strange to the translator. In short, the proof is complete that *Le Sage* was not a creative genius, but that his talent consisted in selecting and combining the

the beauties of other narrative-writers. — Chapters on the chronology of Gil Blas, on the nomenclature of the persons, on the geography, and on the allusions to Spanish manners, diversify the topics of attention; and all conspire to demonstrate the same inevitable conclusion, that the work is a mosaic put together from translated fragments.

A controversial appendix refutes specifically various propositions advanced by the Count *F. de Neufchateau*.

Perhaps something of the garrulity of age pervades this literary examination; which contains several repetitions, and some episodical matter, as, for instance, concerning Amadis of Gaul: but on the whole it is a masterpiece of argument, irresistibly convincing the reader, displaying a most comprehensive knowledge of the Spanish writers of fiction, and tracing to the exact and true source a vast variety of fable which has hitherto passed for original. Had M. LLORENTÉ produced only this dissertation, his name would deserve a lasting rank among the most informed, sagacious, and sound critics. We shall now attend to his Papal biography.

ART. XII. *Portrait Politique des Papes, &c.; i. e. A Political Portrait of the Popes, considered as Temporal Princes, and as Heads of the Church; from the Establishment of the Holy See at Rome to the Year 1822.* By JUAN-ANTONIO LLORENTÉ. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 16s.

THE appearance of such a work as this in the capital of a Catholic country may perhaps excite some surprize in a Protestant one. 'What madness,' exclaims M. LLORENTÉ, 'to think that with the faith of the Apostle St. Peter, and acknowledging in his successors the spiritual power which that Saint enjoyed, but not the power which they have progressively assumed, I should be reputed a heretic! No: my religion does not depend on the will of a Pope: *I should remain a Catholic*, even though he did not choose to regard me as one. Would it not be very strange that my everlasting salvation should depend on the decision of a man, sitting in judgment on his own cause? Let him be the Pope that St. Peter was, and I shall be the Christian that Christians were at that period. One of the most powerful means of winning over the vulgar, and that which was commonly employed by the Romans in bringing other nations under subjection, is the pretended sanctity of their Popes, and the influence attributed to the Holy Spirit in their election and government.' To dissipate this error, by shewing the cabals and intrigues employed

by each in order to obtain the pontificate, and by exhibiting the mischievous course of public policy and the scandalous private lives of individuals, is the object of the compiler of these pages; who asserts that he has collected his narratives from the most authentic and unsuspecting authorities. He may; and he may have told the truth, but he certainly has not told the whole truth. If the good people of Paris can walk into a gallery where the portraits of all the Popes who ever sat in the chair of St. Peter are *painted in black*, each exhibiting some hideous organ of depravity, without cursing the artist who has so pourtrayed them, they must have cast off all their old-fashioned priestly predilections, must have great forbearance, or must feel very indifferent about the *moral* infallibility of their Holinesses. In M. LLORENTÉ'S gallery, however, not a single *good-looking* gentleman is to be found; and his Popes are the most hard-favored and truculent rascals that ever were seen. One lady, indeed, there is, *La Papesse Jeanne*, who is somewhat conspicuously brought forwards, and, as it should be, with softer features than her associates,

“*Cujus labra rosas spirant, violasque capilli;
Spirant cinnameum candida colla nemus:*”

but we all know that this lady gave to heaven a grudging share only of her affections; while, like Heloisa, she bestowed an ample and more willing portion on her lover.

“Heaven claims me all in vain; while he has part,
Still rebel nature holds out half my heart;”

and she might have confessed from her consecrated throne in the palace of the Vatican, like Heloisa from the deep solitude of her convent, that here,

“Even here, where frozen chastity retires,
Love finds an altar for forbidden fires.”

Such, at least, is the historic suspicion as to the incontinence of Pope Joan: but Mr. D'Israeli, in his second volume of the new series of the “Curiosities of Literature” lately published, and which we noticed in our Number for July last, intimates from a satirical medal that it was on account of a certain effeminacy of character only, which distinguished the successor to Leo IV., called by *Platina* John VIII., that he was sir-named, or rather lady-named, Joan. We are well aware that the controversies and conjectures, the fictions and the fables, concerning this Epicene Pope are innumerable, and we have no inclination to rake them up. Leo died in July, 854; and his successor, without waiting for the im-

perial

perial confirmation, was consecrated as the true and legitimate pontiff, at about thirty-eight years of age, in the following September. Marianus Scotus says that Pope Joan sat on the pontifical chair two years, five months, and five days; but *Platina*, in his *Lives of the Popes*, says it was only one year, one month, and five days. M. LLORENTÉ is of opinion that the two years of *Marianus* were added by some disfigurer of history, and that this equivocal descendant of St. Peter had only enjoyed her elevation during the odd five months and five days, when she was delivered of a *chopping child* as she was going in solemn procession to the Lateran church, in the month of March, 855. "Time and tide wait for no one:"—so it may be said of lying-in ladies! She is recorded to have been overtaken with the pains of labor between the Coliseum and St. Clement's church, in the public street, in the midst of a concourse of people assembled to witness the procession; and to have died on the spot, where a statue was afterward erected, too descriptive of the occasion.* It was impossible to conceal so great a scandal at the time; and accordingly this extraordinary event occasioned an equally extraordinary injunction: for, against the recurrence of a similar accident, it was deemed an indispensable precaution that, whenever a pontifical election took place, the sex of the holy aspirant should be ascertained by unequivocal testimony.

During the pontificate of Leo IV., among other strangers who fixed their residence in the holy city, (already the focus of intrigue,) was a German girl whose name was *Gilbert*, born at Mayence.

Nature had conferred on her a genius active, enterprising, bold, and capable of any thing. At the age of maturity she did not scruple to quit her parental roof, and, under the assumed name of John, to disguise herself in male attire for the purpose of travelling in the prosecution of her studies. She repaired to Athens, where the sciences were flourishing, and particularly the philosophy of the times, jurisprudence, and theology; and where she first devoted herself to the study of Latin and Greek. Mistress of these two languages, she then studied theology; and, after having likewise made extraordinary proficiency in rhetoric and the liberal arts, she went to Rome; where, by her literary acquirements, which were very superior to those of the Romans, she gained great reputation among persons of the highest distinction. There, as well as at Athens, she stated that she was of English origin; and being strongly persuaded by some of her friends, who assured her of prosperous fortune, to aspire to the

* It remained till the pontificate of Pius V. (1565), who destroyed the monument, and threw the statue into the river.

episcopal dignity, *John the Anglican*, the name by which she is distinguished from all other Johns, acquiesced in the suggestion.

So much for *La Papesse Jeanne*.

We cannot by any means call this an impartial biography of the Popes, except in one sense of the word; namely, that the author *serves them all alike*, by bringing forwards their bad qualities and throwing those that were good into the back ground: though we are to remember that we are looking only at their *political* portrait. The reign of the Popes, says Gibbon, which gratified the prejudices was not incompatible with the liberties of Rome; and a more critical inquiry would reveal a nobler source of their power than the investiture by Constantine with the temporal dominion of Rome, namely, the gratitude of a nation whom they had rescued from the heresy and oppression of a Greek tyrant. "In an age of superstition," he continues, "it should seem that the union of the royal and sacerdotal characters would mutually fortify each other, and that the keys of paradise would be the surest pledge of earthly obedience. The sanctity of the office might indeed be degraded by the personal vices of the man; but the scandals of the tenth century were obliterated by the austere and more dangerous virtues of Gregory VII. and his successors; and in the ambitious contests which they maintained for the rights of the church, their sufferings or their success must equally tend to increase the popular veneration. They sometimes wandered in poverty and exile, the victims of persecution; and the apostolic zeal with which they offered themselves to martyrdom must engage the favour and sympathy of every Catholic breast." Neither the "austere and dangerous virtues" of Gregory VII., however, nor the dark and superstitious age in which he lived, (nearly eight hundred years ago,) nor the fine taste, splendid accomplishments, and munificent disposition of Léo X., have any weight in the scale of redemption with M. LLORENTÉ. Pius VI. is acknowledged to have exhibited the virtues of a mild and pacific prince in his conduct with regard to the affairs of Germany, under the *reforming* Emperor Joseph II., and with regard to those of the Cisalpine republic: but the reproach is not altogether groundless that, instigated by some emigrant priests from France at the period of the Revolution, he was chargeable with inconsistency in having before threatened with the terrors of excommunication those of the French clergy who should take the oath required by the National Constitution. The late Pope, Pius VII.,

was elected at Venice, March 14. 1800, and after the death of his predecessor the vacancy of the Holy See had remained during seven months. If, as it is affirmed, he was indebted to the interposition of the First Consul of the French republic, *Napoleon Bonaparte*, for his election to St. Peter's chair, and for the peaceable enjoyment of his tiara, it will also be acknowledged that he shewed himself not insensible to the obligation, by canonizing *Napoleon* as "the restorer of the Catholic religion in France, and the special protector of public worship;" and afterward by crowning him with his own hands on his elevation to the imperial dignity.

We shall close this article with an epigram, written by a Dominican friar, on Pope Clement IV.; which will not be displeasing, perhaps, to our readers:

"*Laus tua, non tua fraus; virtus, non copia rerum
Scandere te fecit hoc decus eximium.*

*Pauperibus tua das; nunquam stat janua clausa;
Fundere res quæris, nec tua multiplicas.*

*Conditio tua sit stabilis! non tempore parvo
Vivere te faciat hic Deus omnipotens!"*

This is smooth, and flattering, and benedictory enough: but the biting point is concealed, like the sword of *Harpo- dius* and *Aristogiton*, under a wreath of verdant myrtle. Let us read it backwards, with an altered punctuation:

"*Omnipotens Deus hic faciat te vivere parvo*

Tempore! non stabilis sit tua conditio!

Multiplicas tua, nec quæris res fundere; clausa

Janua stat; nunquam das tua pauperibus!

Eximium decus hoc fecit te scandere, rerum

Copia — non virtus; fraus tua — non tua laus."

We have still on hand another publication by this venerable and indefatigable Spanish priest; viz. an edition of the works of his archetype, the benevolent *Las Casas*; which we intended to examine on the present occasion, but which we are obliged to postpone to another opportunity on account of the indisposition of one of our coadjutors, to whose care it was consigned.

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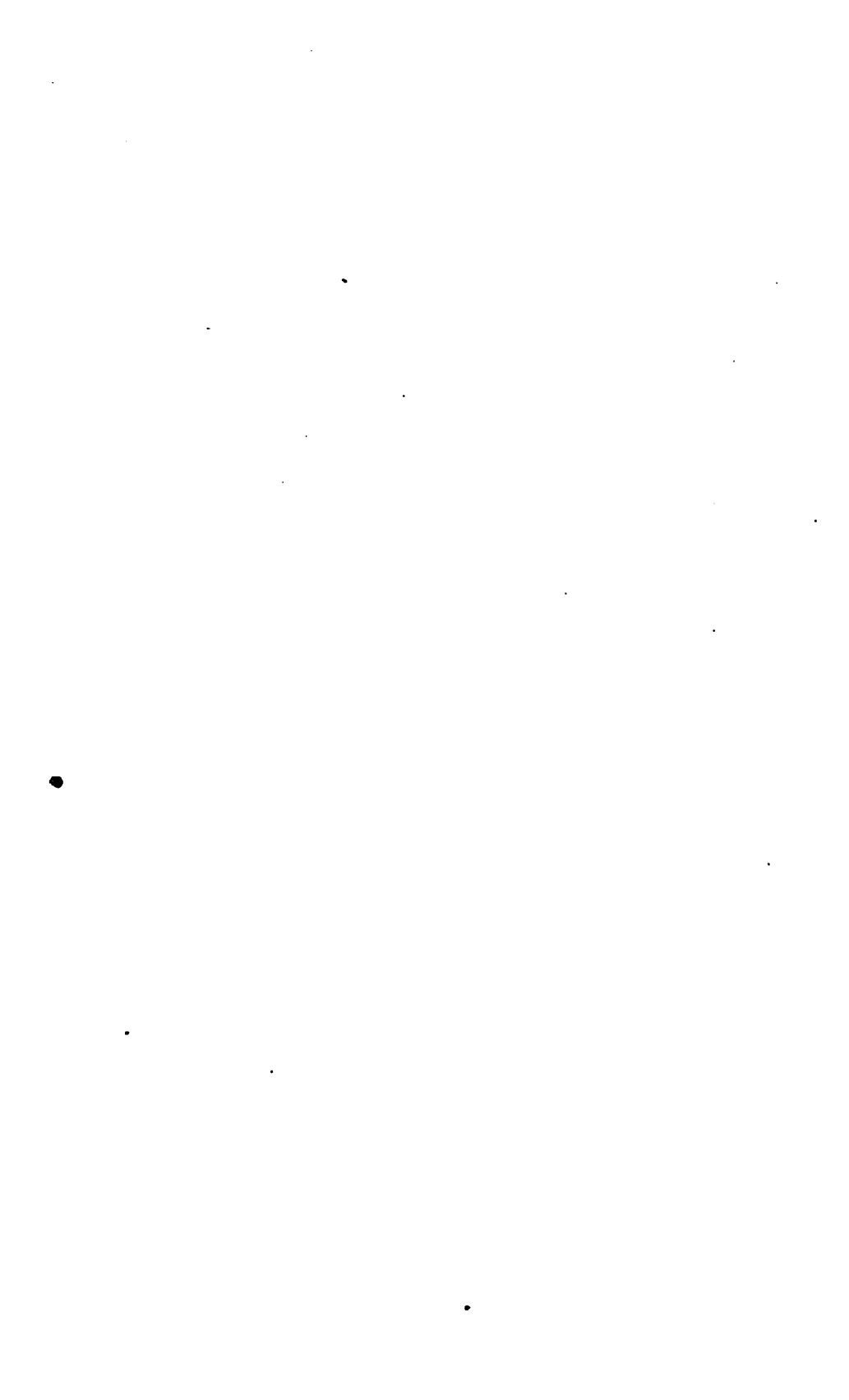
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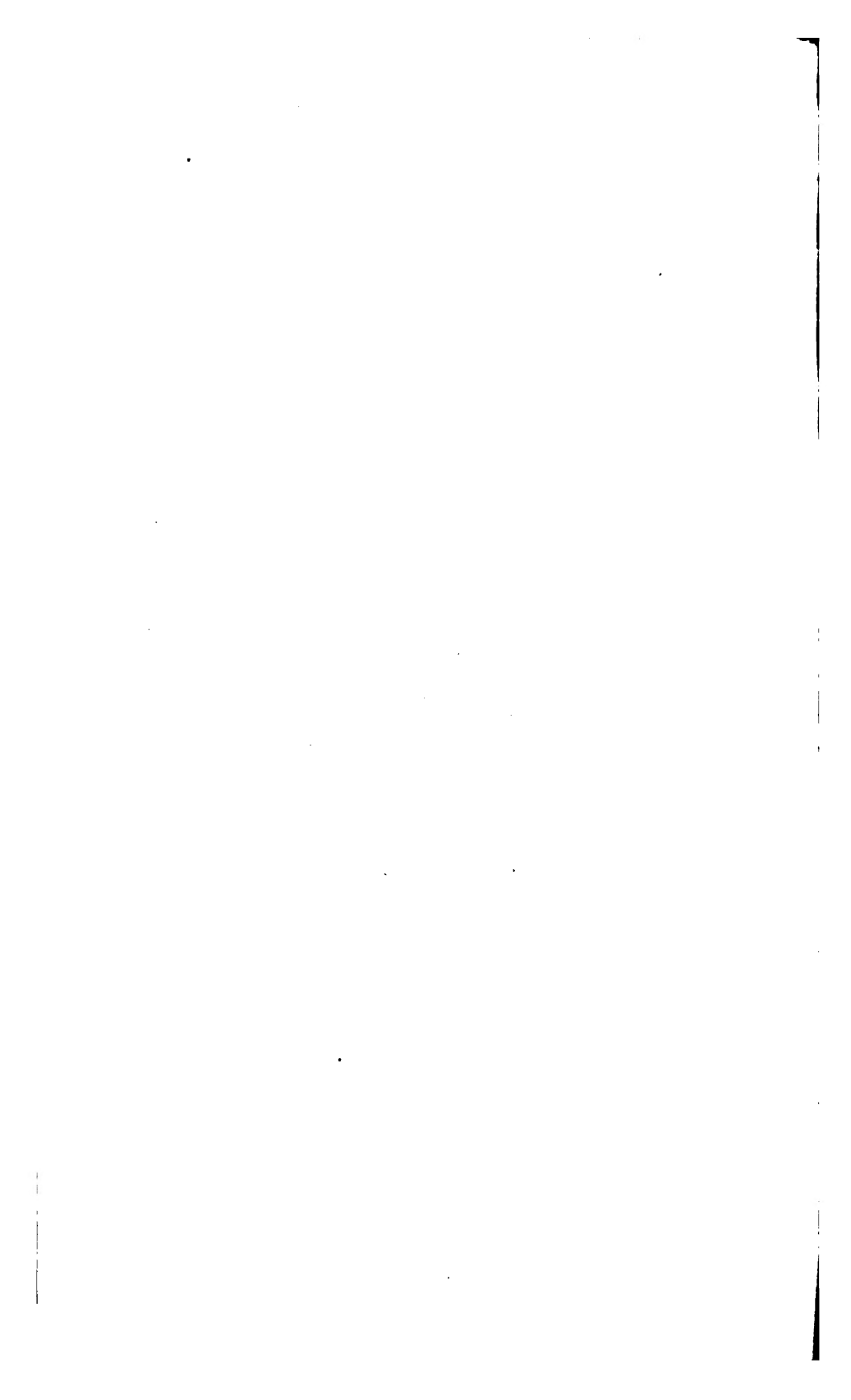
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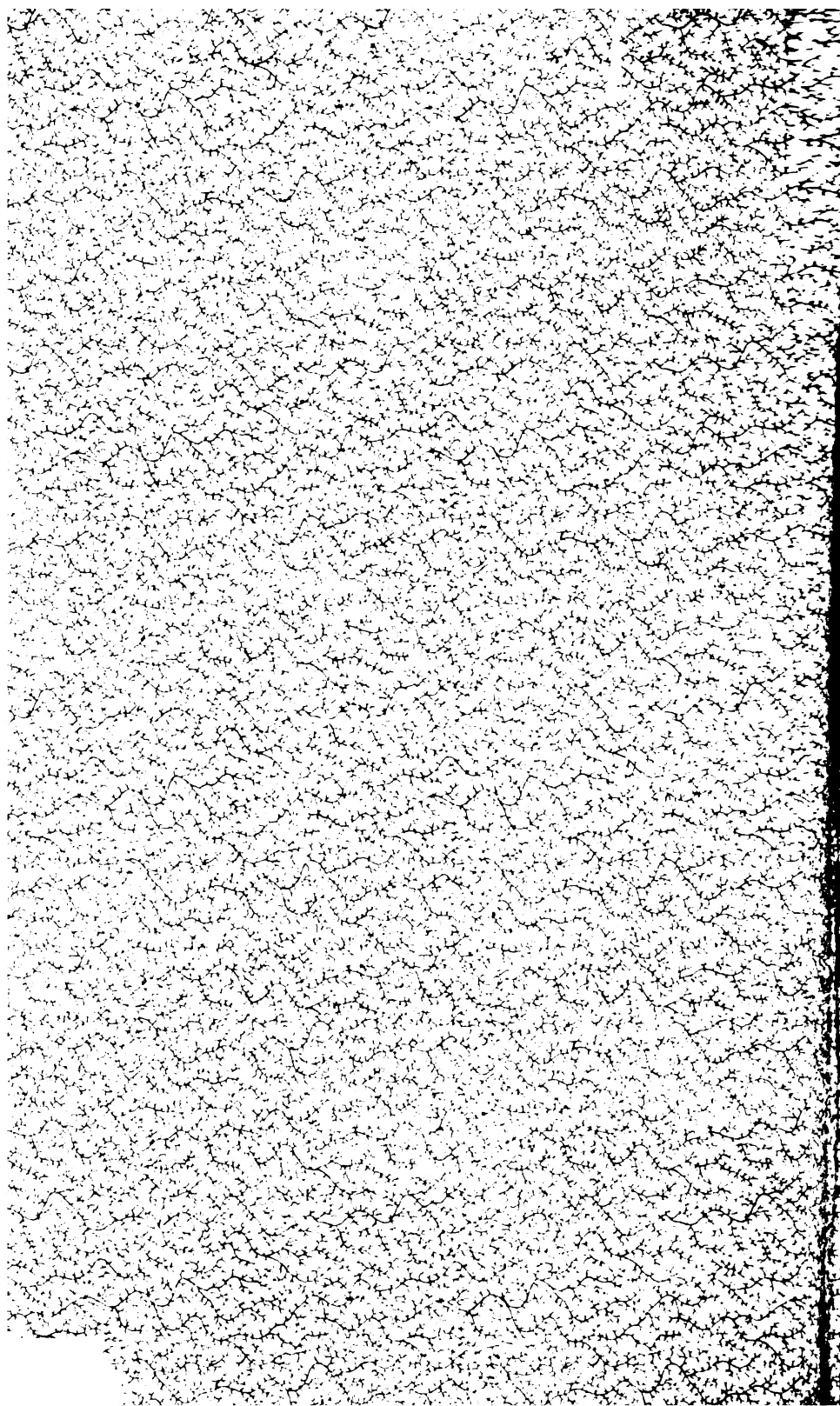
LONDON:

Printed by A. & R. Spottiswoode,
 New-Street-Square.









100-111-1912

